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VOL. II, NO. 1 SEPTEMBER 1, 1922

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA EXTENSION BULLETIN

UNIVERSITY LECTURERS

LIST OF SPEAKERS AND SUBJECTS

1922-1923

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ADDRESS: UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION,
CHAPEL HILL, N. C.

EXTENSION LECTURES FOR NORTH CAROLINA COMMUNITIES

ANNOUNCEMENT

For several years a lecture bureau has been conducted for the purpose of aiding schools and other organizations in obtaining speakers to discuss with them the problems incident to their daily activities and to interest them in those things which look to the upbuilding of the State and the cultivation of the finer things of the spirit. It has offered and continues to offer lectures on national and international politics and on the problems of citizenship and social welfare.

Lecture courses, in whole or in part, or individual lectures on miscellaneous topics are furnished wherever there is a demand for them, whatever the size of the community. Many of these lectures are illustrated with stereopticon slides. Practically the whole University faculty is available for lecture service.

Teachers' meetings, chambers of commerce, parent-teacher associations, boards of trade, factories, women's clubs, Y. M. C. A. centers, farmers' conventions and meetings, debate clubs, school boards, community organizations, study clubs, American Legion, Rotary, Kiwanis, Civitan, Lion, and Goodfellow clubs, and other organizations may secure lectures by applying for them. Also this lecture service and the University's resources of instruction are available to other educational institutions. Addresses for special occasions such as school and college commencements will be supplied upon application. Programs of lectures other than those suggested in this bulletin may be arranged to meet local desires by conference or correspondence.

APPLICATION AND TERMS

Application for lectures should be addressed to Bureau of Lectures, University Extension Division, Chapel Hill, N. C. Since the lecturers are members of the faculty and are not able to leave the University at all times, the application should contain the date and *a first and second choice of lecturer and subject.*

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The traveling and incidental expenses of the lecturer are defrayed by the organization for which the lecture is made. Upon his return to the University, the lecturer submits an account of his expenses to the Extension Division which forwards this to the organization in the form of a bill.

In order to obtain the best results from these lectures, it is suggested that a series of three or more be provided for wherever possible, and that a regular schedule at intervals of a month or some other convenient period of time be arranged. If a single organization or community is unable to meet the entire expenses of such a series it would be well to combine with a neighboring organization or community and thereby reduce the expenses, as the lecturer could speak at two or possibly three neighboring places on the same trip.

It is understood that all lectures are free to the public unless the Extension Division gives the local organization permission to charge an admission fee.

COMMENCEMENT ADDRESSES

Application for commencement speakers should be made at least a month in advance and when possible first and second choice should be indicated. The same terms apply as for other lecture service.

FUNCTION OF UNIVERSITY LECTURER

"It is the function of the university extension lecturer to present in the most attractive way practicable the best thoughts of the best minds and hearts of our time and to interpret to the average man and woman the movement and the forces that are operating all about us."—*Butler.*

INDIVIDUAL LECTURES

Floyd Henry Allport, A.B., Ph.D., Associate Professor of Psychology.

1. Psychology in Business and Industry (2 lectures).
   (a) The Human Factor in Marketing and Manufacturing Processes.
   (b) The Selection and Adjustments of Personnel.
2. The Psychology of Personality (2 lectures).
   (a) What is Personality and how can it be Measured?
   (b) How can we Improve our Personalities?
3. The Formation of Character in Childhood. (For parents and teachers)

William Stanley Bernard, A.M., Professor of Greek.

1. Masterpieces of the Great Painters. (Illustrated)
2. Masterpieces of the Great Sculptors. (Illustrated)
3. Architecture: Historical Styles. (Illustrated)
4. The Greek Drama.
   a. Its Origin, Development, Technique, Meaning.
   b. Euripides; The Modern.
5. What is Art? (Illustrated)
6. Robert E. Lee's Contribution to the Ethics of War. (1-4 singly or in series.)

John Manning Booker, Ph.D., Professor of English.

1. English Imperial Ideals. (A sympathetic presentation of English ideals of government as they are working out in the British Empire. In three lectures: a. The White Colonies; b. The Black Dependencies; c. Ireland.
2. English Imperial Ideals (the above in one lecture).
3. Lord Dunsany's Plays.
4. William Butler Yeats.
5. Leonard Merrick.
6. Galsworthy.
7. The Fiction-making Mind (Illustrated from Boccacio and Maupassant).
8. The Irish Plays.
9. The Dramatic Monologue (Illustrated from Tennyson and Browning).
10. Hamlet.
11. Man and Woman in Recent English Drama. (Two lectures: a. Outside the Marital Union; b. Marriage.)

FRANCIS F. BRADSHAW, A.B., Dean of Students.

1. North Carolina Forty Years From Now: A Study in Character.
2. Student Self-Government in High School and College.
3. Education for Character as well as Intellect. (Commencement address)
4. Education, Coöperation, and Taxation.
5. The best Preparation for College that a High School can give.

EUGENE CUNNINGHAM BRANSON, A.M., Litt.D., Kenan Professor of Rural Economics and Sociology.

1. Robert E. Lee—Gentleman.
2. Come, Let us Live with our Children.
3. Town and Country Dependencies.
4. Civic Housekeeping.
5. Our Landless, Homeless Multitudes.
6. Twin-born Social Menaces.
7. The Small-Town Outlook.
8. The Cityward Drift.

GUSTAVE MAURICE BRAUNE, C.E., Professor of Civil Engineering.

1. City Planning.

JAMES BELL BULLITT, A.M., M.D., Professor of Pathology.

1. Friends and Foes in the Pantry: Bacteriology that Every Housewife Should Know.
2. Life and Works of Louis Pasteur.
3. Hygiene and Morality.

DUDLEY D. CARROLL, A.M., Professor of Economics.

1. Bolshevism and Industrial Relations.
2. Relation of Education to Life. (Commencement address)
3. Democracy and Its Implications.
4. "The Danger of being Safe."
5. Education for Business, or the University and the Business Man. (Lectures 4 and 5 are prepared primarily for chambers of commerce, merchants' associations, and business men's clubs.)
6. Industrial Surveys: What and Why.
7. Work and Worship.
8. The Dimensions of Life. (Commencement address)

COLLIER COBB, A.M., Sc.D., Professor of Geology and Mineralogy.

1. Alaska; Our Empire of the Northwest (Illustrated).
2. Problems of the Far East (a series of four lectures). (Illustrated)
   a. Japan.
   b. Korea, Within and Without.
   c. Siberia.
   d. China.
3. Tropical Latin-America (a series of four lectures). (Illustrated)
   a. The West Indies.
   b. The Caribbean Lands.
   c. The Canal Zone.
   d. Central America.
   (This series may be condensed into two lectures.)

HARRY FULCHER COMER, B.S., General Secretary, Y. M. C. A.

1. Education as an Investment.
2. Something more in the Master Man.
3. Getting an Education Without Money.
4. Citizenship and Character. (Commencement address)
5. Something more in the Master Mind. (Commencement address)

ROBERT DIGGS WIMBERLY CONNOR, Ph.B., Kenan Professor of History and Government.

1. Scotch Highlanders in North Carolina.
2. Scotch-Irish in North Carolina.
3. The German Element in our Population.
4. Archibald D. Murphey: Prophet of Progress.
5. John Motley Morehead: Architect and Builder of Public Works.

HARRY WOLVEN CRANE, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Psychology.

1. Some Advertisements I have met. (Illustrated)
2. Our Psychoneural Selves—Why they are; what they are.
3. Psychoses and Anti-Social Behavior.

HENRY MCCUNE DARGAN, Ph.D., Associate Professor of English.

The Contemporary Novel. (A discussion of certain typical works of prose fiction produced during the last ten years with emphasis upon the social problems reflected in the work of the novelists.)

J. F. DASHIELL, Ph.D., Professor of Psychology.

1. Psychology and the Business Man.
2. Fact and Fancy in the Realm of Spooks.
3. What We Know of the Minds of Brutes.
4. How Children Learn.
5. Nature and Nurture in the Making of Men.

WILLIAM M. DEY, Ph.D., Professor of Romance Languages.

1. French Civilization.
2. The French Educational System.
3. The Plays of Rostand: Cyrano de Bergerac, Chantecler, etc.

NORMAN FOERSTER, A.M., Professor of English.

1. Poe as a Critic of Literature.
2. Realism in Fiction.
3. What is a Liberal Education Today

WESLEY CRITZ GEORGE, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Histology and Embryology.

1. An Episode in Evolution.

THORNTON SHIRLEY GRAVES, Ph.D., Professor of English.

1. The Conventions of Modern Drama.
2. The Shaksperian Playhouse (a series of two lectures). (Illustrated)
   a. Stage Structure and Accessories.
   b. Principles of Staging.

JOSEPH GREGOIRE DE ROULHAC HAMILTON, Ph.D., Kenan Professor of History and Government.

1. Some New Meanings of Citizenship.
2. Presidential Leadership: Jefferson, Jackson, Lincoln, Roosevelt, and Wilson.

THOMAS HOFFMAN HAMILTON, M.A., Instructor in Music.

1. European Song Classics.
2. An Evening with American Composers.
3. Songs by Great Poets.
4. Song Recitals.

ARCHIBALD HENDERSON, Ph.D., Professor of Pure Mathematics.

1. The South's Awakening.
2. The Teaching of Geometry.
3. The Foundations of Geometry.

THOMAS FELIX HICKERSON, S.B., Professor of Civil Engineering.

1. The Quebec Bridge. (Illustrated)
2. Aesthetic Features of Road and Street Planning. (Illustrated)
3. Engineering for Land Drainage. (Illustrated)
4. Domestic Water Supplies. (Illustrated)

C. A. Hibbard, A.M., Associate Professor of English.

1. Concerning the Cartoon. (Illustrated)
2. Possibilities for Journalistic English in Secondary Schools.
3. Japanese-American Relations.
4. Sidney Lanier: Poet of the South.
5. The "New Poetry Movement" in America.
6. Practical Idealism. (Commencement address)

Samuel Huntington Hobbs, Jr., A.M., Assistant Professor of Rural Economics and Sociology.

1. The Economic Structure of Our Rural Life.
2. The Social Structure of Our Rural Life.
3. Rural Life in North Carolina.
4. The Drift of Population in North Carolina.
5. Improving the Rural School.
6. How Farmers Can Coöperate.

Almonte C. Howell, M.A., Instructor in English.

1. Putting Character in Business Correspondence.
2. The Spoken Word in Business.
3. Some Tendencies in Modern Poetry.
4. Rupert Brooke and Young England.

Homer Hoyt, A.M., J.D., Associate Professor of Economics.

1. The Economic Future of the United States.
2. Standardization and its Relation to Industrial Efficiency. (For business organizations.)
3. The Legality of Trade Associations under the Sherman Act. (For business organizations.)
4. Industrial Society and the Study of Business.
5. Commencement addresses.

Edgar W. Knight, Ph.D., Professor of Rural Education.

1. The Rural Schools in the South.
2. Some Inherited Ills in Education.
3. Old-Time School Practices in the South.
4. Some Educational Lessons in the World War.
5. The Consolidation of Rural Schools. (Illustrated)

Frederick H. Koch, A.M., Professor of Dramatic Literature.

1. Shakespeare Today. (A series of six lectures illustrated by readings of scenes from the plays. Any one of these lectures may be given separately.)
   a. The Pageant of Shakespeare in "A Midsummer's Night's Dream."

b. The Heart of Youth in "Romeo and Juliet."
c. The Comic Spirit in "The Taming of the Shrew."
d. The Tragic World in "Hamlet."
e. Illustrations of Shakespeare. (Illustrated) Reproduction of the famous Boydell paintings.
f. Making a New Shakespeare. (Illustrated)

2. The Drama and Democracy. (A series of five lectures. See Lecture Courses, Series III, Group B, any one of which may be given separately.)

J. W. LASLEY, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Mathematics.

1. A Mathematics Teacher's Library.
2. Some Famous Problems of Antiquity.
3. Graphical Methods and Computations.
4. Some Every Day Problems.

HENRY DEXTER LEARNED, A.B., Ph.D., Associate Professor of Romance Languages.

1. The Language of England under the Normans.
2. Reasonable Aims and Possible Attainments in Modern Language Courses.
3. Language as a Record of the March of Civilization.
4. Our Spelling and What is to Become of it.
5. The Literary Heritage of Medieval France.
6. Methods of Modern Language Teaching.

S. E. LEAVITT, Ph.D., Professor of Spanish.

1. Spanish-American Literature.
2. Impressions of South America.
3. Travels in Peru, Bolivia, and Chile. (Illustrated)
4. Can we do Business with South America? (For business organizations.)
5. Impressions of Spain.

WILLIAM DEBERNIERE MACNIDER, M.D., Kenan Professor of Pharmacology.

1. The Cause and the Prevention of the Kidney Injury in Poisoning by Bichloride of Mercury. (Illustrated)
2. A Study of the Prevention of the Toxic Effects of the General Anesthetic in Acute and Chronic Kidney Disease. (Illustrated)
3. The Use of Various Functional Tests in Kidney Disease.
4. The Etiology of Bright's Disease and Certain Related Toxaemas.
5. The Action of Aconite on the Circulation.
6. The Cause of the Toxic Action of Anesthetics for the Kidney. The Prevention of the Toxic Effect.

Walter J. Matherly, A.M., Associate Professor of Business Organization.

1. The Scientific Study of Business.
2. The Latch-String of American Democracy.
3. The Economic Foundations of City Improvements.
4. Community Parasites.
5. The Hard Road to Easy Street. (Commencement address for high schools.)

George McFarland McKie, A.M., Associate Professor of Public Speaking.

1. American Debaters.
2. American Orators.

Harold D. Meyer, A.M., Associate Professor of Sociology.

1. The Playground Movement.
2. Recreation—Its value to the Individual and the Community.
3. Recreation and the Juvenile Delinquent.
4. The Juvenile Delinquent—What is to be done?
5. Social Laws Before the People Today.
6. Commencement addresses.

(See also Lecture Course in Public Welfare on page 16.)

Claudius T. Murchison, Ph.D., Professor of Business Economics.

1. The Economic Functions of Government.
2. The Role of Business in Social Progress.

M. C. S. Noble, Professor of Pedagogy.

1. Community Spirit in a School.
2. The School Committee and the School.
3. The Educational Scrap Pile in School and College.
4. The Teaching of County Geography.
5. The Influence of Geography on North Carolina History.
6. Experts in Teaching.
7. Commencement addresses. (Addresses at teacher's meetings, educational rallies, community meetings, and school commencements.)

Howard W. Odum, Ph.D., Kenan Professor of Sociology.

(See Lecture Course on Public Welfare on page 16. Any of these lectures may be given individually.)

A. H. PATTERSON, A.M., Professor of Physics.

1. The Story of the Stars. (Illustrated)
2. The Gyroscope and its Modern Applications. (Illustrated with experiments)
3. The A B C of Relativity.

WILLIAM WHATLEY PIERSON, JR., Ph.D., Professor of History.

1. The United States and the Caribbean countries.
2. Monroe Doctrine and the League of Nations.
3. The "New Nationalism" of Roosevelt and the "New Freedom" of Wilson.

JOSEPH HYDE PRATT, Ph.D., Professor of Economic Geology.

1. The Natural Resources of North Carolina: Their Development and Utilization.
2. Conservation: Its Application in the Nation, State, and Community.
3. The Economics of our National and State Government.
4. The Growth and Development of Transportation in North Carolina.
5. Water Powers of North Carolina:
   a. Their Relation to Electric Power Development.
   b. Their Relation to the Industrial Development of the State.
   c. Their Relation to Transportation Development.
   d. Their Relation to Agricultural Development.

WILLIAM FREDERICK PROUTY, Ph.D., Professor of Stratigraphic Geology.

1. Brief History of our Earth and its Inhabitants:
   a. Probable Origin of the Earth and our Solar System. (Illustrated)
   b. Dawn and Evolution of the Animals. (Illustrated)
   c. Geological History of Man. (Illustrated)
2. The Why of Weather and Climate. (A discussion of why and when and where it rains and an exposition of the world climatic conditions.) (Illustrated)

ALBERT A. SHAPIRO, A.B., Ph.D., Assistant Professor of Spanish.

1. Value of a Liberal (Cultural) Education.
2. South America—Its People and Resources.
3. Spain's Contributions to the World—History, Literature, Art.
4. France's Intellectual Service to History.
5. Value of Latin in Modern Language Work.
6. How and Where to Travel.
7. Reading—Newspapers, Periodicals, Texts, Books; How and What to Read.
8. Language Development or Change.

David L. Sheldon, Instructor in Music.

1. Instruments of the Symphony Orchestra and their Uses.
2. How to Listen to Music.
3. A Study of Ludwig von Beethoven's Life as Compared with his Musical Productions.
4. Your Future School of Experience. (High school commencement address)

Chester De Forest Snell, B.H., B.S., Director, University Extension Division.

1. University Extension Service.
2. North Carolina and the Spirit of Progress.
3. Correspondence Courses and Extension Classes.
4. Rural School Consolidation. (Illustrated)
5. Social Hygiene.
6. Community Progress. (For community meetings)
7. The Ideal Teacher. (For teacher's meetings)
8. Education and Progress. (High school commencement address)
9. America. (Commencement address)

Jesse F. Steiner, Ph.D., Professor of Social Technology.

1. Japan: Social Customs and Conditions in the Land of the Mikado. (Illustrated)
2. The Issues of the American-Japanese Problem illustrated from intimate Knowledge of the Japanese.
   (See also Lecture Course on Public Welfare on page 16)

Walter Dallam Toy, M.A., Professor of Germanic Languages. and Literatures.

1. The German Universities.
2. Martin Luther.
3. Bismarck. (Illustrated)
4. Goethe's Faust.
5. Goethe's Iphigenie auf Tauris. (Suitable as an address before book-clubs.)
6. Schiller's Dramas.
7. The Nibelungenlied (The German National Epic).
8. The Personal Element in Goethe's Works. (An investigation of the personal experiences which determined Goethe's initial interest in the themes of his most important literary productions.)

Marion Rex Trabue, A.B., Ph.D., Professor of Education.

1. Educational Yardsticks.
2. Are the Schools Building Good Citizens?
3. How Reliable have Mental Tests Become?

N. W. WALKER, Ed.M., Professor of Secondary Education.

1. The School and the Community.
2. Democracy and Education.
3. Objectives of Secondary Education.
4. The Pupil, the Teacher, and the Curriculum.
5. Social Objectives of Education.

PAUL JOHN WEAVER, B.A., Professor of Music.

1. Music Education in the Public Schools. (For women's clubs, parent-teacher associations, and similar organizations.)
2. Demonstration Teaching in the Public Schools.
3. Survey of Music in Given Public School Systems.
4. Testing and Measurement of Musical Talent. (A psychological measurement of native ability in music; if actual tests are desired, two lecture periods are needed.)
5. The Appreciation of Music.
6. Organ Recitals. (Professor Weaver will be available for a limited number of organ recitals.)

ROBERT HASLEY WETTACH, A.M., S.J.D., Assistant Professor of Law.

1. Law and Morals.
2. Modern Tendencies in Legal Development.
3. Trial by Jury and Why We have It.

LOUIS ROUND WILSON, Ph.D., Kenan Professor of Library Administration.

1. The Public Library as a Community Builder. (Illustrated)
2. Libraries of the State and Nation. (Illustrated)
3. The Duties of an Alumnus to College, Community and State.
4. Investment and Dividend Years. (Commencement address)

LECTURE COURSES

I. Citizenship: Full Course.

The lectures in this series are offered as an answer to the demand for discussion and information about governmental and political problems—the study of which has gathered greater impetus and new purpose since the war. This particular program may be of especial interest to women's clubs and has been drafted for use by those following the outlines of Studies in Citizenship for Women. The lectures may be secured singly or in any combination determined on by the club.

1. Suffrage: Its Opportunities and Obligations. (Professor Carroll.)
2. Some New Meanings of Citizenship. (Professor Hamilton.)
3. Our National Government. (Professor Connor.)
4. The Government of North Carolina. (Professor Hamilton.)
5. International Government and the League of Nations. (Professor Pierson.)
6. Culture and Citizenship. (Professor Bernard.)

II. Americanization: Full Course.

This series of lectures is offered for the particular benefit of those communities which have adopted the course on Americanization—a study outline published by the University for the use of the North Carolina Federation of Women's clubs. As in Course I, these lectures can be taken singly or in any combination which may be desired.

1. Immigration Problems in Legislation and Politics. (Professor Steiner.)
2. Program of Inter-racial Work in North Carolina. (Professor Odum.)
3. The Problem of Education for Immigrants and Negroes. (Professor Knight.)
4. Japanese-American Relations. (Professor Hibbard.)
5. Immigration and Radicalism. (Professor Carroll.)

III. Community Service.

The following groups of lectures deal with some of the problems and reforms in our community life and attempt an inspirational interpretation of the possibilities in community games, drama, and music. Each group is a unit, but individual lectures may be secured.

GROUP A. Public Welfare.

The following lectures, intended to be descriptive of present-day currents and efforts toward public welfare and community work, will be offered by Professor Howard W. Odum, Professor Jesse F. Steiner and Associate Professor Harold D. Meyer. Lectures may be offered in popular form or in round-table discussions of practical problems and technique, as preferred.

1. Democracy and Public Welfare: Democracy as a measuring scale of social progress.
2. Social Pathology and Social Progress: Progress in the enactment of age-long ideals.
3. Civic Coöperation in Community Building: Progress in active citizenship through knowledge and service.
4. Social Ideals and Objectives of Education: Progressive tendencies in American schools, colleges, and universities.
5. Social Unrest and Industrial Relationships: Progress in the elimination of un-American tendencies, both radical and reactionary.
6. Christianity and Social Problems: Progress in the adaptation of the Christian principles of living.
7. Women and the Professions: Progress in adaptations of home, citizenship and industry.
8. Family Welfare and Training for Social Work: Progress in programs for normal living.
9. North Carolina State Programs of Public Welfare: Progress in legislation and governmental social service.
10. The Disadvantaged Family: What should the community do about its progress.
11. The Neglected Child: How we can help him become a useful citizen.
12. Recreation and Life: Progress in the adaptation of work and play.

GROUP B. The Drama and the Community.

A series of lectures by Professor F. H. Koch.

This group of lectures is designed to suggest the possibilities in the writing and production of original community drama in the State as planned by the Bureau of Community Drama of the University Extension Division.

It is desired to encourage communities to translate their local traditions and history into dramatic forms that will express the life of the people themselves.

1. The Theater and the People.
2. The Early English Folk Drama.
3. Shakespeare and the People.
4. The Community Drama. (Illustrated)
5. Folk Playmaking in North Carolina. (Illustrated)

Group C. Community Music.

A series of lectures by Professor Paul J. Weaver.

These series might well be called one of lecture and demonstration work. The first lecture is primarily for communities where there has been no organization of community music work. The second is purely demonstration work; the leading of community sings wherever the local organization will make arrangements for such a program. The third is a "follow-up" of this work, intended for the community which wants to go on with an organized movement and which needs for that purpose a discussion of methods and materials. Number 2 can precede number 1, if it is so desired; in some cases number 1 will not need to be given at all.

1. Community Music and its Possibilities.
2. Community Sing Demonstrations.
3. Community Music Methods and Material.

Group D. Town and City Improvements.

A series of lectures by Professor Thorndike Saville.

The tendency manifest in North Carolina toward the growth of its numerous industrial and agricultural centers into small cities has become increasingly apparent within recent years. To this urbanization is added the allied factor of community growth; that is, the formation of small civic centers in the rural and agricultural areas of the State.

This situation is challenging the attention of thoughtful citizens to solve the new problems of municipal and community growth along proper lines.

1. City and Town Planning. (Location of public buildings, types of paving, lighting, parks and playgrounds.)
2. The Problems of Housing. (Including housing legislation in America and England.)
3. Methods of Obtaining and Distributing a Satisfactory Supply of Water.
4. Sewage and Waste Disposal.
5. General Problems of Municipal Sanitation.

Group E. The Library and the Community.

The public library is coming to be recognized as a vital unit in the life of the community. To stimulate interest in libraries, the

University Librarian, Dr. Louis Round Wilson, offers a series of two lectures.

1. The Public Library as a Community Builder. (Illustrated)
2. Libraries of the State and Nation. (Illustrated.)

IV. BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY.

In the expansion and increasing complexity of industry, confusion and conflict are apt to arise. Short-sighted and fantastic panaceas may be accepted as "cure-alls," and conflict may develop because of lack of a clear understanding of the mutual interdependence involved in business relations. Information through lectures may help to obviate some of these difficulties.

The School of Commerce will undertake to provide lectures by its staff to business groups on the nature and organization of modern industry. The following subjects are merely suggestive; others may be provided upon request.

1. Self Expression through Product. (Professor Carroll.)
2. Industrial Morale. (Professor Matherly.)
3. Price Policies. (Professor Murchison.)
4. The Scientific Study of Business. (Professor Matherly.)
5. Current Panaceas for Industrial Reform. (Professor Carroll.)
6. Banking Policy and Price Fluctuations. (Professor Murchison.)

V. FOR RELIGIOUS GROUPS.

The following lectures are suitable for Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A., and church groups. Most of these were given last year on successive Sunday evenings in one of the churches at Southern Pines.

1. Come Let Us Live with Our Children. (Professor Branson.)
2. Story of the Stars. (Illustrated) (Professor Patterson.)
3. Something More in the Master Man. (Mr. Comer.)
4. Japan: Within and Without. (Illustrated) (Professor Cobb.)
5. Community Parasites. (Professor Matherly.)
6. Why the Interchurch Movement Failed. (Illustrated) (Mr. Snell.)
7. The Modern Judas. (Professor Carroll.)
8. Masterpieces of Great Painters. (Illustrated) (Professor Bernard.)

BUREAUS AND SERVICE
of the UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION
CHAPEL HILL, N. C.

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I. CORRESPONDENCE AND CLASS INSTRUCTION: Standard University courses by mail, either for credit or non-credit. All courses are credited toward university degrees and state teachers' certificates. Evening extension classes in several cities. Write for correspondence bulletin. Summer postgraduate medical extension courses.

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V. COMMUNITY DRAMA: Guidance and field direction in the writing and production of community plays, pageants, and festivals. Write for bulletins. Services of a field agent available.

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THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA RECORD

EXTENSION SERIES

Upon application the following numbers will be sent you for the price listed:

8. Coöperative Institutions Among the Farmers of Catawba County. Price 25c.
9. Syllabus of Home-County Club Studies. Price 25c.
12. The Teaching of County Geography. Price 25c.
21. Measurement of Achievement in the Fundamental Elementary School Subjects. Price 25c.
22. Public Discussion and Debate. (Revised.) Price 25c.
25. Local Study Clubs. Price 25c.
27. Standard Educational Tests and Measurements as a Basis for a Co-operative Plan. Price 25c.
29. Comparative Results of a State-wide Use of Standard Tests and Measurements. Price 25c.
30. The North Carolina Club Year-Book—County Government and County Affairs in North Carolina. Cloth. Price $1.25.
31. Compulsory Military Training. Price 25c.
32. A Study of the Public School in Orange County, North Carolina. Price 25c.
33. The State and County Council. Price 25c.
36. Plays for Amateurs. Price 50c.
37. Further Use of Standard Tests and Scales as a Basis for a Coöperative Research Plan. Price 25c.
38. The Construction of Schoolhouses. Price 50c.
39. The Teaching of Geometry. Price 50c.
40. Collective Bargaining. Price 50c.
41. N. C. Club Year Book—State Reconstruction Studies. Price 75c.
1. (Special Series.) Design and Improvement of School Grounds. Price 75c.

MONEY ORDER, CHECK OR STAMPS ACCEPTED

ADDRESS: UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION,
Chapel Hill, N. C.

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA EXTENSION BULLETIN

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UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA EXTENSION BULLETIN

ALUMNI BUILDING
HEADQUARTERS OF THE UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION

CORRESPONDENCE COURSES
1922-1923

BUREAU OF CORRESPONDENCE AND CLASS INSTRUCTION

PUBLISHED BY THE UNIVERSITY
Entered as second-class matter Sept. 1, 1921
CHAPEL HILL, N. C.

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of the UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION
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BUREAU OF CORRESPONDENCE AND CLASS INSTRUCTION

CORRESPONDENCE INSTRUCTION

Correspondence Study has been designed to give everyone who cannot attend the University of North Carolina an opportunity to get some of the advantages for instruction and culture which may be a help to him. To those who desire to study for degrees or teachers' certificates, for cultural or vocational purposes, the correspondence study method offers an excellent opportunity.

Correspondence study is simply a method of learning through the study of text-books and answering in writing the questions asked in each lesson assignment. Each assignment contains: (a) Full directions for study, including references to text-books by chapter and page; (b) suggestions and helps of the instructor; (c) questions to test the student's method of work and his understanding of the work done. When a student has registered for a course two assignments are sent him. He does the work outlined in the first assignment and sends his paper to the Extension Division and then he begins work on the second assignment. At the University his paper is corrected and graded by a member of the faculty and returned to him along with a new assignment. While it is very desirable that the student send in work regularly, at least one assignment each week, the student has the privilege of sending in the work as he is able to complete it.

Correspondence Instruction is no longer an experiment but is an assured success. This fact is testified to by University instructors and by earnest and enthusiastic students. Educational institutions all over the country now consider correspondence courses a part of their regular work.

It is not the purpose of correspondence study to discourage study in residence. Quite the contrary, it is believed that many who thus become interested in continuing their education will be led to avail themselves of residence study. In residence the student comes into personal contact with teachers and a large body of students. The constant contact with scholarly and cul-

tured people has always been looked upon as a prime factor in the rounded education of young people.

However, to quote the *University of Texas Bulletin*: " . . . . Correspondence study offers substantial advantages. In correspondence instruction the teaching is entirely individual; each student comes into individual relation with the instructor in a way impossible in the crowded class-room. He recites the whole of every lesson with a consequent advantage to himself that is obvious. Full opportunity is given to discuss all difficulties in writing, and this written discussion in itself affords valuable training. By throwing the student largely upon his own resources, the correspondence method clearly helps him to develop initiative, self-reliance, perseverance and allied qualities essential to the true student. Further, a correspondence student is not hampered by the usual regulations; he may take up a study at his convenience without awaiting the fixed date of a college term."

Quoting from the *University of Oregon Monitor*: "Those who find their only opportunity for study in the correspondence method should never feel apologetic or unfortunate. Dr. Harper, first president of the University of Chicago, long ago discovered that 'the work done by correspondence is even better than that done in the classroom.' The University of Pittsburgh reports that many correspondence-study students testify that their correspondence-study work meant more to them than work in residence. The University of Oregon and scores of other Universities and colleges including the Universities of Wisconsin, Chicago, Indiana, California, Minnesota and North Carolina, endorse the method by granting college credit to their successful correspondence students. The correspondence method, then, is a valid, practicable, approved method of study and instruction."

In offering corespondence courses to *school teachers*, the University has no desire whatever to interfere with the regular work of the teachers but wishes simply to give them an opportunity to better their educational training during their spare hours.

Length of Courses. Each correspondence course has been developed by a member of the faculty so that it parallels a course given in residence in the same subject and covers an

equal amount of work for which equal credit is given. Although it may vary, a correspondence course which gives one-half course credit has about sixteen assignments and for one course credit there are about twenty-seven assignments. Each assignment covers approximately two days of residence work. On such assignments a student is expected to put approximately six hours or else sufficient time to do the work in the best possible manner. Where there are a small number of assignments in a course, each assignment covers several days of residence work. The number of assignments in a course is really incidental, since the total amount of work for a unit of credit is always the same.

Text-books are purchased by the students themselves, usually through the Extension Division. When a student has finished a course the Extension Division will repurchase books which are in good condition if the student desires to sell them. Reference books for supplementary reading may be borrowed from the University Library upon application to the Extension Division.

CREDIT

All courses, except those listed on page 21, count toward the A. B. degree. Certain courses will be credited toward the B. S. in Commerce. The Division of Certificates of the State Department of Public Instruction at Raleigh will credit toward *state teachers' certificates* all correspondence courses for which the University gives degree credit. A teacher may therefore earn by this method both degree and certification credit at the same time.

To work out a systematic plan for taking correspondence instruc ion for the A. B. degree, study carefully the "Residence Requirements for the Degree of Bachelor of Arts," found on page 8. Courses marked with an asterisk (*) are given by correspondence.

Amount of Credit—Nine courses are equal to one year of college work. One course (subject) equals three and one-third semester hours of certification credit, and a half course is equal to two semester hours. Either two courses or three half courses give credit equivalent to attendance at one summer school. This is the academic credit needed to renew a certificate.

It should be clearly understood that no *course* is offered to

raise or renew any particular teaching certificate. Rather, correspondence instruction is given by the *subject* as in residence instruction, since each correspondence course parallels a residence course.

In general, any *certificate may be raised one class* by credit for four approved summer schools of not less than three five-hour courses each (twenty-four semester hours of work), or the equivalent in correspondence courses. This means eight full correspondence courses or twelve half courses, or a combination of half and full courses sufficient to make twenty-four semester hours. The quickest and best method for raising a certificate is to combine summer school and correspondence instruction.

Entrance Requirements—*An applicant for correspondence work must meet University entrance requirements and be enrolled in the University if either degree or certification credit is desired.* The University entrance requirements state that an applicant must have at least fifteen units from an accredited high school. An applicant for advanced standing may be admitted to the sophomore, junior, or senior class when credit for work taken at other colleges has been properly transferred to this University and accepted by the examining committee.

Master's Degree Credit—At present no courses are offered toward the Master's degree. However, a *teacher* who is already a graduate of an A grade college and who still lacks some professional credits for a certificate may take certain professional courses by correspondence. These courses must be chosen only in one's own professional field. For instance, a primary teacher should not take a course in High School Methods.

Teachers Note—School teachers with sufficient ability and experience, who are working for certification credit, may take junior and senior correspondence courses though they may be technically rated as freshmen or sophomores. Eligibility of a teacher to take such correspondence courses will be decided by the head of the department and the dean of the school under which the subject is given.

WITHOUT CREDIT

Those who desire to take correspondence courses but do not wish degree credit may register for such, provided they can demonstrate their ability to carry on the work satisfactorily. The courses on page 21 are especially designed for those engaged in certain occupations.

Fees. A fee of six dollars and a half ($6.50) is charged for each half course (subject); a fee of twelve dollars ($12) is charged for one course. No fees or parts of fees can be remitted after a course is once begun. A registration fee holds good for twelve months only. If it is desired to continue a course not completed within that time a new registration and fee will be required.

RULES GOVERNING CORRESPONDENCE WORK

1. Those wishing to take correspondence courses for credit must submit a transcript of their high school record on a blank furnished by the Extension Division.

2. Not more than two courses (subjects) may be carried at one time and it is advisable to take one course and complete that before registering for another.

3. Students may enroll for correspondence work any time between September fifteenth and June first. Work may not be done between August first and September fifteenth. It is important to register as early in the fall as possible (between September fifteenth and November first). Registration in the late spring does not leave sufficient time to complete the work before the end of summer school (August first).

4. Work taken by correspondence must be completed within one year from date of registration.

5. Those who wish credit must take a final examination upon the completion of all assignments in a course. This examination may be taken either at the University or at home under conditions approved by the University.

6. It is desirable that students send in at least one assignment per week.

7. A subject previously taken in any institution for which either degree or certification credit has already been given can not be taken for credit by correspondence.

8. One year of residence work is required by the University before any degree will be granted.

9. Teachers who need professional courses for certification credit must select courses only in their own professional field. For instance, a primary teacher can not take a course in high school methods.

THE HONOR SYSTEM

Correspondence courses, like residence courses, are on the honor basis. The student body of the University has through a century of traditions developed an honor spirit and an honor system. A student who plagiarizes, copies, cheats, or in any way does dishonest work is not only denied credit for the course but is also dismissed from the University by his fellow students. Work must be honest above all other qualities. Each correspondence student is on his honor to do only honest work. At the conclusion of each assignment a student certifies on honor that no aid was given or received.

To make certain that there be no semblance of dishonor it should be an unfailing habit never to use the textbook or any other materials or aids after the questions have been read.

No credit will be given for a course in case the student has been false to the pledge of honor.

HOW TO REGISTER FOR CORRESPONDENCE WORK

Read carefully all the preceding pages. Then look through the list of courses and determine one or two which you need or which you are most interested in. Next fill out the application blank in the back of this bulletin; detach and mail to the University Extension Division, Chapel Hill, N. C.

EXTENSION CLASSES

Extension classes in University subjects will be organized in the fall of 1922 in several cities in the State. These classes will meet one evening a week for sixteen weeks and will be taught by members of the University faculty. Some subjects which may be taught are salesmanship, advertising, accounting, English, history, mathematics, and education. The same credit will be given as for residence work. Those not wishing credit are

eligible for these courses. Groups wishing to organize extension classes should send in their applications early. The minimum number of students for whom the Extension Division is willing to organize a class is usually held at fifteen. The request for such a class should be accompanied by a full statement of the probable enrollment, the general type of persons who wish to take the course, how frequently the class wishes to meet, where it will meet, who will have charge of the local organization arrangements, and what particular course is desired. As many of these classes will be organized as the resources of the Division will permit.

Postgraduate medical courses for doctors are conducted in twelve or more centers of the State each summer.

RESIDENCE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF BACHELOR OF ARTS

This section is inserted so that correspondence students may select their courses in line with the requirements for the degree of Bachelor of Arts should they desire to do so.

The course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Arts is designated to provide a general, well-rounded, liberal education.

In order to be recommended for the degree a student must pass satisfactorily thirty-six whole courses. In residence two half courses are equivalent to one whole course. Nine whole courses (one year of college work) may be taken by correspondence instruction. At least one year in residence is required before a degree will be granted.

In the first two years the student pursues a more or less definite curriculum, taking nine courses each year according to the following plan:

Freshman Year

* English 1	Select two	Greek 3-4
* Mathematics 1-2		* Latin 1-2
* History 1-2		French 3-4
		German 3-4
		Spanish 3-4

Sophomore Year

Select one	* English 3-4	Greek 5
	Botany 1-2	Latin 3
	Chemistry 1-2	French 5
	** Physics 1-2	German 21
	Zoology 1-2	Spanish 5
	Botany 1 and Zoology 1	Elective, 3 courses

* Given by correspondence instruction.

** Only first half of Physics 1 given by correspondence; second half, composed of laboratory work, must be taken in residence.

Sophomore elective courses which are given by correspondence: Economics 1-2, 15; English 20; Physics 1 (first half); Psychology 1; Geology 1; French 6.

Junior and Senior Year

During the junior and senior years the work is on an elective basis, providing what is deemed a proper amount of concentra-

tion in study and, at the same time, a certain distribution of subjects.

The student may specialize in any one of eighteen University departments. Each year not less than three courses nor more than five courses may be elected in this department; the remainder of the year's work to make up nine courses must be elected in other department. This program is to be worked out in consultation with the head of the department in which the student has decided to specialize.

Subjects which are given by correspondence instruction during the junior and senior years may be noted by glancing at the descriptions of the courses listed in this bulletin.

COURSES OF INSTRUCTION

SCHOOL OF COMMERCE

DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMICS

c 1. GENERAL ECONOMICS. Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSOR SPRUILL. Fee, $12.00.
Sophomore and Junior elective. *25 assignments.*
This course is designed to present the outlines of economic theory and to give the student an understanding of the general principles underlying our complicated industrial life. An analysis is made of the forces which operate in markets to determine value, and the features of the consumptive, productive and distributive processes are presented.

c 2. GENERAL ECONOMICS. Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSOR SPRUILL. Fee, $12.00.
Sophomore and Junior elective. *27 assignments.*
This course is planned to present, in a scientific way, the several economic problems which characterize our industrial system. Emphasis is placed on the practical phases of economic study. Money and banking, foreign exchange, foreign trade and tariff legislation, the monopoly problem, the labor situation and various schemes of economic reform constitute the chief topics of study.

BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

c 6. ENGLISH OF COMMERCE. (See English c 6.)

c 7. INVESTMENTS. Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSOR MATHERLY. Fee, $12.00
Prerequisites, Economics 1-2. *25 assignments.*
A study of the various forms of investments with reference to their suitability for the different types of investors; the money market, its nature and the financial factors which influence the price movement of securities; elements of sound investments and methods of computing net earnings, amortization, rights and convertibles. The aim will be to train the student so he may be able to act efficiently in a financial capacity either as borrower or lender, as investor or trustee, or as fiscal agent of a corporation. (No. 5 in University catalogue.)

NOTE: School teachers working for certification credit may take Junior or Senior courses though they may have only Freshman or Sophomore standing.

NOTE: Unless otherwise stated in the descriptions of the courses, the "C" numbers are the same as in the University catalogue and also correspond to the "S" number in the Summer School catalogue.

c 8. BANKING AND BUSINESS. Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSOR MURCHISON. Fee, $12.00.
27 assignments.

A practical study of banking from the business man's point of view. The principles and procedure involved in the making of loans and discounts, and in financing the various types of business transactions. The relation of the bank to community welfare; the economic principles governing the volume of bank credit, and the amount of currency in circulation. A detailed study of the Federal Reserve System, the Federal Farm Loan System, and the relationship between State and National banks. (Not ready until January, 1923).

HISTORY

c 15. INDUSTRIAL HISTORY. Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSOR SPRUILL. Fee, $12.00.
Sophomore and Junior elective. *27 assignments.*

The purpose of this study is to lead the student through the channel of history into the field of modern economy. Our present economic system is presented as a product of evolutionary processes. Special emphasis is placed on the development of the wage system, the ebb and flow of business activity, the expansion of markets, the growth of capital, etc., as they have manifested themselves in English and American history.

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

PRINCIPLES OF EDUCATION

c 2. PRINCIPLES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION. Credit, ½ course.
PROFESSOR WALKER. Fee, $6.50.
Junior and Senior elective. *20 assignments.*

A study of the history, function, organization, management, program of studies, and internal equipment of the high school. Textbook, parallel reading, reports. This course parallels Education 51 in the University catalogue.

METHODS OF EDUCATION

c 3. HIGH SCHOOL METHODS. Credit, ½ course.
PROFESSOR KNIGHT. Fee, $6.50.
Junior and Senior elective. *10 assignments.*

The course discusses the general principles of psychology and pedagogy which underlie the methods of teaching in the high school. Both pupils and subject matter are considered as factors in the development of self-directing and self-controlling individuals. This course parallels Education 52 in the University catalogue.

c 4. EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY. Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSOR DASHIELL. Fee, $12.00.
Sophomore, Junior and Senior elective. *20 assignments.*
The central topic to be the psychology of learning or improvement, especially in children. The basis of learning, the different sorts of learning, and the various factors that condition it, are major problems of the course. Assigned readings, problem-questions, and experiments to be conducted by the student on children or others, are the methods used. Some previous knowledge of elementary principles of psychology is recommended but not required.

c 4a. EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY. (see Sociology c 4a).

c 4b. EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY (see Sociology c 4b).

c 26. PUBLIC SCHOOL EDUCATION IN THE SOUTH.
PROFESSOR KNIGHT. Credit, 1 course.
Fee, $12.00.
25 assignments.
This course gives a historical survey of public school education in Southern States with especial attention to its development in organization, administration, and supervision since 1876. Present-day questions in rural education are studied in the light of their historical development, and attention is given to the educational reorganizations needed for the proper solution of the new rural life problems. This course parallels Education 26 in the general catalogue.

c 31. RURAL EDUCATION. Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSOR KNIGHT. Fee, $12.00.
27 assignments.
This course is planned for teachers and prospective teachers and principals of rural or village schools, county superintendents, and supervisors. Consideration is given to the principal problems of rural education in the United States with special emphasis on conditions in North Carolina. Attention is given to importance and conditions of the rural school, and to plans for improving rural education. The curriculum, problems of support, administration, health, recreation, the county unit plan, and consolidation and transportation will be studied. This course parallels Education 31 in the general catalogue.

c 62b. EDUCATIONAL MEASUREMENTS (*Elementary Course*)
PROFESSOR TRABUE. Credit, ½ course.
Fee, $6.50.
Senior elective. *16 assignments.*
This is the second half of the course listed as Education 62 for students in residence. It consists of the practical application of the principles discussed in the first half, which the student may have taken either in the regular year or in summer session (Education

s 62a). The work will include (1) the actual giving of certain specified tests to a group of at least 35 pupils in a classroom and (2) the interpretation and use of the resulting scores in the improvement of instruction in the classroom studied. Test blanks and supplies for this work may be purchased directly from the publishers or they will be supplied at cost by the Extension Division.

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

c 1. FRESHMAN ENGLISH. Credit, 1 course.
MR. LINDSEY. Fee, $12.00.
24 assignments.

Intensive reading, chiefly in American prose; extensive reading among selected books and periodicals; constant written composition on topics related to the reading. This course parallels English 1 in the general catalogue.

c 3. SOPHOMORE ENGLISH. Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSOR HIBBARD. Fee, $12.00.
27 assignments.

This course covers the same field as the first term of required sophomore English as outlined in the University catalogue. *The Great Tradition* is the text used and the period studied is from the Renaissance through the eighteenth entury. The basis of the work is the study of representative selections illustrative of the life and thought of the time in which they were written. While this is a literature course primarily, no student will be given credit for the term's work unless he shows a creditable ease in the matter of English composition.

c 4. SOPHOMORE ENGLISH. Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSOR DARGAN. Fee, $12.00.
27 assignments.

A continuation of English c 3 based on more recent work in English and American literature.

c 6. ENGLISH OF COMMERCE (Business English). Credit, ½ course.
MR. HOWELL. Fee, $6.50.
Prerequisite, English 1.
Sophomore, Junior, and Senior elective. *17 assignments.*

A course in the vocabulary, forms and literature of the business profession with special attention to letters of application and inquiry, routine, collection, adjustment and sales letters, business reports and technical articles. Specimen letters are studied and criticized and actual business problems solved through written work. This course parallels English 20 under School of Commerce in University catalogue.

e 7. THE SHORT STORY. Credit, ½ course.
PROFESSOR HIBBARD. Fee, $6.50.
Junior and Senior elective. *15 assignments.*
A composition course primarily designed to offer students an opportunity for short story writing and to familiarize them with the form. The work of various European and American authors will be studied. This course parallels English 23 in the University catalogue.

e 8. MODERN DRAMA. Credit, ½ course.
PROFESSOR ROYSTER. Fee, $6.50.
15 assignments.
The main purpose of this course is to offer the student a general acquaintance with the chief tendencies of English and Continental drama of the past thirty years. The plays upon which the lesson assignments are based are printed in Dickinson's Chief Contemporary Dramatists, First Series.

e 16. ARGUMENTATION. Credit, ½ course.
PROFESSOR MCKIE. Fee, $6.50.
16 assignments.
A study of the principles of argumentation and practice in analyzing public questions and in collecting and arranging evidence.

DEPARTMENT OF GEOLOGY

e 1. INTRODUCTION TO GEOLOGY (Part A. Dynamical Geology).
PROFESSOR PROUTY. Credit, 1 course.
Fee, $12.00.
27 assignments.
This course deals with the physical geology of the Earth, its composition, structure, and the natural processes that are at work modifying it. In the laboratory work the student will take up the study of the common minerals and rocks, the interpretation of topographic maps, and earth features. Advantages will be taken of the local conditions for supervised field trips. Minerals, rocks, and maps will be furnished by the University at a nominal charge. (If materials are in good condition at end of course and are returned, the fee will be refunded).

e 21. INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL GEOGRAPHY.
PROFESSOR COBB. Credit, 1 course.
Fee, $12.00.
Junior and Senior elective. *27 assignments.*
The course deals with man's interaction with his varying environment in the development of industries, and with the geographic conditions of different countries as giving rise to commerce. Sets of laboratory materials will be sent the student who pays an additional fee for same. (If materials are in good condition at end of course and are returned, the fee will be refunded).

DEPARTMENT OF GERMANIC LANGUAGES

c 21. ADVANCED GERMAN. (Introduction to the history of German literature). Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSOR TOY. Fee, $12.00.
Sophomore, Junior and Senior elective. *27 assignments.*
Prerequisite, German 3-4 or one year of college German.
Lessing: Minna von Barnhelm; Schiller: Die Jungfrau von Orleans.

DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY

c 1. FOUNDATIONS OF MODERN HISTORY. Part I.
PROFESSOR CONNOR. Credit, 1 course.
Fee, $12.00.
Required of all Freshmen. *27 assignments.*
A general course dealing with the fundamental factors in modern civilization in Europe and the United States. The emphasis of the course will rest upon the commercial revolution, European expansion, the protestant revolt, colonial and dynastic rivalry, the Old Regime, the French Revolution, the industrial revolution, the rise of democracy, the influences, the growth of modern imperialism, and the course of modern international relations.

c 2. FOUNDATIONS OF MODERN HISTORY. Part II.
PROFESSOR GRAHAM. Credit, 1 course.
Fee, $12.00.
Required of all Freshmen. *27 assignments.*
Continuation of c 1.

c 1x. MODERN EUROPEAN HISTORY. Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSOR WAGSTAFF. Fee, $12.00.
Junior and Senior elective. *31 assignments.*
Course of study dealing with the primary factors that shaped European history from the close of the great religious war, 1648 (The Thirty Years War), to the present time. The present Europe will be interpreted by a study of the influence that gave its nations their present boundaries, their particular forms of government, and their national ideals and ambitions. Outline studies, texts, and reference readings. This course parallels History 14 in the University catalogue.

DEPARTMENT OF LATIN

c 1. CICERO, DE SENECTUTE. Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSOR ..... Fee, $12.00.
Freshmen elective. *25 assignments.*
The course is concerned with the translating of Latin, with work in vocabulary, and with a review of the chief principles of grammar.

c 2. LATIN COMPOSITION. Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSOR HENRY. Fee, $12.00.
Freshman and Sophomore elective. *27 assignments.*
The course will begin with translation into Latin of detached sentences illustrating the general principles of syntax and word-order; the second half will deal with continuous narrative and with questions of diction and style.

DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS

c 3. COLLEGE ALGEBRA. Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSOR HOBBS. Fee, $12.00.
Freshman. *44 assignments.*
It treats the quadratic equation with a detail discussion of the nature of its roots. Graphs are especially stressed. Determinants and their properties are gone into. Other topics, such as complex numbers, partial fractions, etc., are touched upon.

c 4. TRIGONOMETRY. Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSOR LASLEY. Fee, $12.00.
Freshmen. *25 assignments.*
This course concerns itself with the definitions of the trigonometric functions and the relations between the functions, their relations to the large notion of angles, the application of the functions and the log. tables to the solution of triangles on the plane.

c 51. THE TEACHING OF MATHEMATICS IN THE HIGH SCHOOL.
PROFESSOR HOBBS. Credit, ½ course.
Fee, $6.50.
16 assignments.
A study of the content and arrangement of the material of high school mathematics in accordance with the recommendations of The National Committee on Mathematical Requirements.

DEPARTMENT OF MUSIC

c 1. THEORY OF MUSIC (INTRODUCTORY). Credit, ½ course.
PROFESSOR WEAVER. Fee, $6.50.
16 assignments.
The rudiments of music, its structural elements in rhythm, melody, harmony and form; simple exercises in reading and writing music. Text, First Year Musical Theory, Tapper.

c 10. HISTORY, OF MUSIC, Part I. Credit, ½ course.
PROFESSOR WEAVER. Fee, $6.50.
16 assignments.
Primitive music, the music of the early civilized countries (partic-

ularly Egypt, Greece and Rome), the monophonic period, and the polyphonic period up to approximately the year 1600. Text, History of Music, Stanford-Forsyth.

c 11. HISTORY OF MUSIC, Part II. Credit, ½ course.
PROFESSOR WEAVER. Fee, $6.50.
16 assignments.

From approximately 1600 to the present time; the lives, work and influence of the great musicians of the recent centuries, and tendencies in modern music. Number 10 should precede this course, but is not an absolute prerequisite. Text, same as for course No. 10.

c 20. HARMONY, ELEMENTARY. Credit, ½ course.
PROFESSOR WEAVER. Fee, $6.50.
16 assignments.

Major and minor diatonic scales, intervals, triads and chords, harmonic progressions, cadences and sequences, inversions of chords, chord of the dominant seventh and its inversions, natural modulation, harmonization of basses and melodies. Text, Harmony, Part I, Anger.

c 21. HARMONY, ADVANCED. Credit, ½ course.
PROFESSOR WEAVER. Fee, $6.50.
Prerequisite, c 20 or equivalent. *16 assignments.*

Secondary sevenths, chords of the ninth, derivatives of the dominant ninth, suspensions, auxiliary notes, extraneous modulation, harmonization of inner parts, basses and melodies. Texts, Harmony, Parts II and III, Anger.

c 30. PUBLIC SCHOOL MUSIC. Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSOR WEAVER. Fee, $12.00.
Prerequisite, c 1. *27 assignments.*

The place of music in the school; selection of material for different grades; the rote song; methods of approaching technical work; rhythmic and tonal drills; development of the child voices; brief comparison and discussion of texts adopted for use in this state. (s 1 in Summer School). Text, School Music Teaching, Gehrkens.

DEPARTMENT OF PHYSICS

c 1. GENERAL PHYSICS. Credit, ½ course.
PROFESSOR PATTERSON. Fee, $6.50.
Sophomore, Junior and Senior elective. *16 assignments.*
Prerequisite, Mathematics 1-2, or c 1 and c 2.

Mechanics of solids, liquids and gases; sound and heat. Text-book, Kimball's College Physics. Problems.

NOTE: The second half of this course, largely the laboratory work, must be taken either in a regular or a summer session.

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

c 1. GENERAL PSYCHOLOGY. Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSORS ALLPORT AND DASHIELL. Fee, $12.00.
Sophomore, Junior, and Senior elective. *27 assignments.*
The aim of the course is to present the essential phenomena of psychology, and the various methods of approach. Emphasis is placed on the organic relationships within the whole field.

DEPARTMENT OF ROMANCE LANGUAGES

c 6. MASTERPIECES OF FRENCH LITERATURE. Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSOR DEY AND ASSISTANTS. Fee, $12.00.
Prerequisite, 2 years of college French. *27 assignments.*
This course covers the masterpieces of the 17th, 18th, and 19th centuries, with selections from Corneille, Racine, Molière, Beaumarchais, Voltaire, Lamartine, Victor Hugo, Alfred de Vigny, Rostand, etc.

c 8. FRENCH COMPOSITION. Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSOR DEY AND ASSISTANTS. Fee, $12.00.
Prerequisite, 1 year of college French. *27 assignments.*
The object of this course is to provide students with an opportunity to acquire practice in writing French.

DEPARTMENT OF RURAL SOCIAL SCIENCE

c 1. ECONOMICS AND HISTORY OF AGRICULTURE.
PROFESSOR HOBBS. Credit, 1 course.
Fee, $12.00.
27 assignments.
The economics of agriculture. Historical sketch of agricultural development in the United States; Colonial agriculture, period of conquest, period of transformation, period of western expansion, period of reorganization. The economic and social areas of North Carolina.

c 2. LAND AND LABOR AS FACTORS OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION. Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSOR HOBBS. Fee, $12.00.
27 assignments.
Land. The land resources of the Nation by geographic areas. Land economics. How to economize land. Land resources of North Carolina. Labor. Economic characteristics of agricultural labor. Decreasing agricultural labor ratios. Labor and machinery in agriculture. The forms and types of farm labor in various areas. Conserving labor. Economizing labor. Ways of economizing labor in various areas of the Nation.

c 3. CAPITAL AND RURAL CREDITS. Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSOR HOBBS. Fee, $12.00.
27 assignments.

Capital, credit, and agencies. Forms of agricultural capital: In Europe; in the South. The crop-lien, time-credit, supply-merchant system. Coöperative credit unions in Europe. Coöperative credit unions in the United States, and especially in North Carolina. The Federal Farm Loan Act. Building and loan associations for farmers.

c 4. FARM TENANCY. Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSOR HOBBS. Fee, $12.00
27 assignments.

Facts about farm tenancy in the Nation, and especially in the South. Origin and growth of tenancy, especially in the South. Types of tenancy. Economic advantages and disadvantages. Social effects. Remedies: In Denmark; in New Zealand, Australia, California, and the South. References: N. C. Club Year-Book 1921-22; field surveys in three typical areas in North Carolina, covering 1,000 farms; files of the Department of Rural Social Economics, University of North Carolina, containing the best collection of information on tenancy in any library.

c 20. NORTH CAROLINA: ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL.
PROFESSOR HOBBS. Credit, 1 course.
Fee, $12.00
27 assignments.

This course is designed to familiarize the student with North Carolina: Population, agriculture, resources, social life, economic development, industry.

c 21. AGRICULTURAL COOPERATION. Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSOR HOBBS. Fee, $12.00
27 assignments.

History of agricultural coöperation, principles of coöperation, coöperative organizations, rural credits, and coöperative marketing.

SCHOOL OF PUBLIC WELFARE

DEPARMENT OF SOCIOLOGY

c 1. COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION. Credit, ½ course.
PROFESSOR STEINER. Fee, $6.50.
Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, and Senior elective. *16 assignments.*
Principles of collective behavior and social control in their application to problems of community work. Analysis of different types of communities. Technique of community diagnosis. Fundamental factors involved in community organization. Evaluation of methods of community work. Study of examples of successful experiments

in community organization. This is a professional course designed primarily for teachers, social workers, county superintendents of public welfare, and others interested in community work. This course parallels Sociology 8 in the University catalogue.

c 2. PRINCIPLES OF SOCIOLOGY. Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSOR MEYER. Fee, $12.00.
Junior and Senior elective. *26 assignments.*
The purpose of this course is to give the student a working knowledge of the general principles of sociology and to teach him to apply, to some extent, these principles to some of the social problems about us. The text used gives a good outline of one author's conception of the facts involved in the association of people together. The course contains a system of sociology. Studies are made of: The Social Population, Social Forces, Social Processes; Social Products and Sociological Principles. Text: Ross—Principles of Sociology, together with supplementary readings.

c 4a. EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY. Credit, ½ course.
PROFESSOR ODUM. Fee, $6.50.
Junior and Senior elective. *16 assignments.*
Standards of measurements of progress. Survey of sociological principles involved in their application in education, politics, government, social work. The effective use of sociology in directing and controlling group progress, social institutions, democracy, and in the development of the total social personality of the individual. The coördination of institutional modes of activity and the enrichment, through coöperation, of social organization. This subject is divided into two half-courses. This, the first half-course, deals with the study of standards of individual excellence and a study of the institutions—home and family, school and education, church and religion, state and government, community and association, industry, and work—as educational forces in developing the social objectives of education.

c 4b. EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY. Credit, ½ course.
PROFESSOR ODUM. Fee, $6.50.
Junior and Senior elective. *16 assignments.*
This is Part II of Educational Sociology c 4a, and deals with the social objectives of education and of the school subjects.

c 12. CRIME AND ITS SOCIAL TREATMENT. Credit, 1 course.
PROFESSOR STEINER. Fee, $12.00.
Junior and Senior elective. *27 assignments.*
Nature of crime; extent of crime; causes of crime; criminal law and procedure; theories and methods of punishment; the prison system; substitutes for imprisonment, problems of prison administration; the prevention of crime.

c 24. COMMUNITY PLAY AND RECREATION. Credit, ½ course.
PROFESSOR MEYER. Fee, $6.50.
15 assignments.

A theoretical and practical course designed to aid school teachers, social workers, and community leaders along play and recreational lines. General place of recreation and play in the social order. A study of the theories of play, taking the natural instinct as a basis. Hunting and fighting plays, homing plays, fire and water plays. Sex differences—concentration and separation. The playground. Equipment. Games and game analysis. Festivals. General recreation. Plays. Pageants. Story telling. Holidays. Making programs. Obtaining funds for equipment. General trends. Play and education. Play and democracy.

NON-CREDIT COURSES

c 1. PRACTICAL ELECTRICITY. No credit.
PROFESSOR LEAR. Fee, $10.00.
20 assignments.

A course for electricians, electrical machinists, and others desiring to start the study of electricity. This course is designed to give the student an acquaintance with the materials, apparatus, and terminology used in electrical engineering. The fundamental principles of current, voltage, resistance, energy, and power are studied by means of practical problems as applied to commercial machines.

c 2. RADIO TELEPHONY. No credit.
PROFESSOR DAGGETT. Fee, $6.50.
16 assignments.

An elementary course, for the amateur radio enthusiast, in the fundamental principles of radio and their application to the transmission and reception of radiophone speech and music. Contains no involved mathematics and may be taken by anyone of ordinary intelligence.

c 3. RADIO. No credit.
PROFESSOR DAGGETT. Fee, $10.00.
20 assignments.

A more advanced course than c 2, covering the principles and practice of radio telegraphy and telephony. A simple study involving the use of only simple high school mathematics, of wire and radio phone systems, high frequency currents, electron tubes, modulation, transmitting and receiving equipment. Especially suited to students taking physics in the high school.

c 5. PRACTICAL STEAM ENGINEERING. No credit.
PROFESSOR HOEFFER. Fee, $10.00.
20 assignments.

An elementary course designed for men employed in engine and boiler rooms. This course covers the theory and types of boilers, fuels and firing, steam, boiler auxiliaries, boiler practice, history of the steam engine, slide-valves and valve setting, corliss engines, high-speed automatic engines, compound and triple expansion engines, condensers, steam turbines, pumps, belting and shafting.

ARE YOU INCLUDED?

University courses of standard grade by correspondence offer excellent opportunities to hundreds of persons who are fully qualified to pursue them profitably but who, for various reasons, are unable to attend a university. Aside from the general appeal of this work it is particularly helpful to the following classes:

1. College students who are unable to pursue continuous residence courses;
2. Grammar and high school teachers who cannot avail themselves of residence instruction;
3. Teachers and others who have had a partial college course and who wish to work along some special line;
4. Professional and business men who wish to supplement their training;
5. Teachers in country schools who have had little or no normal school work and no college training;
6. The man or woman who left school early or who is too old to go to school and feels the value of broader training to make life more interesting or who seeks to change his or her vocation;
7. Club women who wish to pursue a systematic line of study;
8. The young man or woman who wishes to prepare for a business career.
9. Isolated men and women who desire some interest outside of themselves—who are reaching out for mental stimulus;

10. House-keepers and home-makers who wish to keep up with the times;

11. Ministers of the gospel laboring in remote places, who wish to keep abreast of the times in educational matters;

12. Those in public service—in fact all who are eager for knowledge or advancement, and are reaching out for mental stimulus, and desire to keep abreast of the times.

The Bureau of Correspondence and Class Instruction of the Extension Division has been organized with the needs of these people in mind. In correspondence study the University projects itself into every corner of the State and is thus enabled to serve its patrons by meeting their educational needs, regardless of their geographical location.

The University of North Carolina as a public institution belongs to all the people of the State. Therefore it is YOUR University—use it.

ADVANTAGES OF CORRESPONDENCE STUDY

Correspondence study offers unusual advantages for individual study. The powers of initiative, concentration, self-reliance and habits of study are developed to a degree not found in the class-room, because in correspondence study the student is constantly thrown upon his own resources and recites all of each lesson. The processes involved in the singling out of the essential points and the elimination of the non-essential, the organization of one's thoughts regarding the entire lesson and transferring this organized thought to written form in good, clear, concise English, are the processes which make this form of study so valuable. It must be clear to anyone familiar with the class-room that such processes are not possible there because of physical impediment. For these reasons, the late Dr. William R. Harper, of the University of Chicago, said: "The work done by correspondence is even better than that done in the class-room." President Roosevelt also gave this movement of modern times his approval by saying that in his opinion it was one of the remarkable improvements of the age.

By continuing correspondence study with an occasional summer term any teacher may, in a comparatively short time, earn a life certificate and thus materially add to his culture and earning capacity.

Students may take courses by correspondence while engaged in their work at full salary; and by employing their spare moments earn credits toward a degree or a teachers' certificate or both and increase their efficiency and earning capacity.

When you take correspondence instruction work all the resources of the University, and particularly of the School of Education, the Library and the Extension Division, will be freely placed at your disposal. Every possible effort will be made to be of the greatest personal as well as professional help to you. The limit of such assistance will be set by your appeal for it and by our physical ability to supply it. The whole spirit of this work is the spirit of service; its limits, therefore, are not the limits of the spirit but of the body. Does not this work appeal to you?

Registration Blank for Correspondence Courses

BUREAU OF CORRESPONDENCE AND CLASS INSTRUCTION

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION

CHAPEL HILL, N. C.

The following application is to be filled out completely in the applicant's own handwriting. Avoid abbreviations. Fill out every line.

Name (signature in full) .....

Permanent address (street and number) .....

Town or City .....

County ..... State .....

Age ..... Date of application .....

Occupation .....

Education (in full) .....

From what college, or school, if any, have you graduated? .....

.....

Were you enrolled in correspondence courses or classes in this bureau? .....

Name courses you have completed in this bureau, if any .....

Commercial, industrial or teaching experience? ..... No. years .....

If teaching, give class and number of state certificate which you now hold

.....

Subject of course desired .....

Reason for selecting this course .....

Do you wish further information about this course before registering?

.....

How many hours per week have you available for home study? .....

Do you wish to purchase the books through the Extension Division? .....

References as to my character and industry (Gives names and addresses)

.....

.....

Names and addresses of persons likely to be interested in correspondence courses .....

.....

.....

.....

A bill will be sent covering the fees for this work. Registration is not complete until the fees are paid.

Vol. II, No. 3 October 1, 1922

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION

University of North Carolina Extension Bulletin

LITERATURE OF TODAY

A PROGRAM FOR WOMEN'S CLUBS

BY CARRIE BELLE ROYSTER

PUBLISHED BY THE UNIVERSITY
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CHAPEL HILL, N. C.

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EXTENSION LEAFLETS

Vol. III, No. 7. *Our Heritage. A Study Throuh Literature of the American Tradition.* By J. H. Hanford. Price .35.

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Vol. I, No. 12. *Study Course in Southern Literature.* By C. A. Hibbard. Price .50.

Vol. I, No. 13. *Contemporary Literature.* By J. F. Royster. Price .50.

Vol. II, No. 3. *Literature of Today.* By C. B. Royster. Price .50.

Vol. II, No. —. *Town Studies.* By Harold D. Meyer. Price .50.

LITERATURE OF TODAY

A WORD OF EXPLANATION

It is readily recognized today that the woman of culture is not satisfied entirely by novels, short stories and drama. This course is being offered to point out what is best worth reading in the general literature that is being published—books that will have not only a present value but a permanent worth. Everyone today wants to know something of the happenings of the world, in politics, the social situation, the latest discoveries in science and nature, what our best poets are thinking, and so on. No more is there such a thing as isolation, and we must learn about the thoughts, feelings and movements that make up the world that comes to our doors.

Care has been taken to avoid books that are too technical to be easily understood, and an effort has been made to give as much variety as possible so that there will be subjects presented to suit every taste.

Each book chosen is made the general topic for one program and less side reading than usual is offered because the material so gathered would be more than could be used in one meeting. Also each book is complete in itself and is meant to supply to the reader a wider knowledge of the world's affairs rather than to suggest any exhaustive study of one topic.

C. B. R.

LITERATURE OF TODAY

FIRST MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: Memoirs of a Midget

By Walter de la Mare

This story is unique in literature. Never before have we had the story of a dwarf as beautifully told as this is and surely no other small person could have had so thrilling a life. Brought up in sheltered luxury until the death of her parents, she finds herself at that time face to face with a world of people who regard her as a plaything at best, or with the curiosity of a hostile mob chasing its prey, a world of people who have no conception of her feelings, needs and difficulties. Being very beautiful, she is entangled in the love affairs of her friends and plays an important part in their lives, until, finding the situation unendurable, she slips away to join a passing circus. This adventure ends in a most disastrous manner. As she slowly grows into the consciousness that she is different from the rest of the world, although like them in everything but size, she develops an immense courage. Her self-dependence and ability to master every situation make her character heroic, even though placed in this diminutive body.

First Paper: By.....

Subject: The Story of the Book.

Second Paper: By.....

Subject: The Book in Relation to Literature.

Memoirs of a Midget is more than a novel. It is a realistic romance, founded on allegory. The form of memoirs allows the author to tell in detail the inner experiences of the Midget. Authors frequently make use of this form but it is difficut to handle it successfully. Note other books in first person; for example, *Jane Eyre*, all memoirs and autobiographies; other books about dwarfs: *Hunchback of Notre Dame*, by Victor Hugo; *The Opera of Rigoletto.*

Third Paper: By.....

Subject: Walter de la Mare.

a. Outstanding facts of his life.

b. His poetry.

c. Other books by him: *Peacock Pie; The Three Mullah Mulgars.*

References:

Memoirs of a Midget, by Walter de la Mare.
Copies of poems by Walter de la Mare.
Reviews of books and poems.
Biographical material (if there is any available).

SECOND MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: Red Dusk and the Morrow

By Sir Paul Dukes

Although Russia is remote and seems far away, no one can read the newspapers without being conscious that the future of Russia touches us all very closely. Not only is it a matter of concern to our Government and our international bankers, but it concerns each one of us personally. If Russia goes down, and with it Germany, there will be a hole as big as the Pacific Ocean. This book, by an observant Englishman, helps us to get an understanding of the situation in Russia, and shows vividly the problems and mistakes of that country.

No story of Sherlock Holmes holds as many thrilling adventures and narrow escapes as this report from the Secret Service in England. Known to the Government of Russia as an enemy, watched for from one end of the country to the other, he yet managed to stay there for over two years, even joining the ranks of the Red Army. Most difficult of all was his escape out of the country. All of this is told in the most fascinating way, with the ring of truth, by the man who had these experiences.

First Paper: By.....

Subject: Form of the Russian Government Up to and Including the Kerensky Revolution and Soviet Régime.

a. Lenin, Trotsky and Zinoviev: their characters.

b. Faults and virtues of Soviet rule.

SECOND PAPER: BY.....

Subject: COMPARISON OF THE FRENCH AND RUSSIAN REVOLUTIONS.

a. Conditions in each country.

b. Present conditions in Russia.

THIRD PAPER: BY.....

Subject: INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS.

The idea of international harmony has made rapid growth in the last few years. Since the establishment of the Hague Conferences many organizations have become world-wide in their scope.

a. Hague Peace Conferences.

b. Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A.

c. Workers' Unions, Woodmen of the World, I. W. W.

d. Boy Scouts.

REFERENCES:

Current magazine and newspaper articles.

THIRD MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: Maria Chapdelaine

By LOUIS HÉMON

American literature today includes a large number of books translated from many languages. The drama has been drawing from foreign sources for many years, but the rest of our authors and writers have been mostly English and American.

In *Maria Chapdelaine* we read about a country whose borders touch our own for thousands of miles, and yet whose people speak a language that must be translated before we understand it. These pioneers of the north country where the fringes of civilization brush the wilderness are shown in the struggle of man to conquer the forces of nature,—the fight that is made by every race in the beginning of its climb upward.

The author abandons himself to the delicious joy of life in the open, and he shows that the most unnoticed person, living ever so quietly in an out-of-the-way place, yet is connected with the scheme of the universe and is essentially a part of it.

Louis Hémon was unknown when *Maria Chapdelaine* appeared in Paris. He was not a French-Canadian, as was first supposed, but a Breton, whose sister describes him as "a silent man who fled from the world and loved solitude and meditation." When he had sent his manuscript to France from Canada, he started on a tramp with a friend from St. John's Lake, where he had compiled his manuscript. He and his companion in crossing a trestle were killed by a railroad train. The publishers in France, not being able to find the author, brought out *Maria Chapdelaine* in *Le Temps,* where it was first seen by Louis Hémon's father. Daniel Halevy rescued it and brought it out in book form.

First Paper: By.....

Subject: The Story of the Book.

a. Give quotations showing that the author believed every life has a meaning and a definite purpose even though it is not always apparent.

Second Paper: By.....

Subject: A Short Sketch of Life of Louis Hémon.

Third Paper: By.....

Subject: The Lake John Country.

a. The three groups of people who inhabit Canada: Canadians, French and English; how these races are grouped in that country and the effect this grouping has on their lives.

b. The Canadian border touches our own for more than a thousand miles and yet they have never given us cause to build forts or to place police protection along the line as we do to the south of us. The part of their country which is closest to us is inhabited for the most part by the English settlers and we sometimes forget that the Indians live in great numbers to the north, and that the French in the northeast were among the earliest settlers and consider themselves the only real Canadians.

c. How the French have continued their customs and speech practically unchanged throughout the years.

REFERENCES:

Maria Chapdelaine, by Louis Hémon.
The Laurentians, by Morris Longstreth.
The Right of Way, by Gilbert Parker.
Trilogy of the Three-River Country, by James Oliver Curwood.
Book Reviews of *Maria Chapdelaine*.

FOURTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: Working with the Working Woman

By CORNELIA STRATTON PARKER

The subject of woman and her relation to work has a place in the mind of every man and woman in the United States today. It is a matter of legislation in Washington, and of consideration in every state capital in the Union as well as being a household topic in every community and farm in the country. Everywhere the question is up for discussion: Shall our daughters accept the household tasks so long assigned to them by the accident of sex, or shall they have a freer choice of the kind of labor, which will earn their bread and butter, and if so, what will become of the home, marriage and children?

Cornelia Stratton Parker finished writing and has had published the book which her husband was working on at the time of his death. Her interest in social conditions is as deep as his was, and it is most natural that she should want to know through personal experience something of the lives of the people they had studied and written about so long. She has the same spirit of love and curiosity about her fellow people that made George Borrow wander about the country in a gypsy cart, and write *The Romany Rye,* and which made Henry IV don a disguise and mingle with his subjects as one of them in order that he might know how they thought and lived.

First Paper: By.....

Subject: Why Women Work.

a. Author's opinion on this subject.

b. Opinions of members of the club on this subject.

c. Ellen Key on the same subject in *The Movement* and Olive Schreiner in *Woman and Labor.*

Second Paper: By.....

Subject: Social Conditions Among Workers in Your Community.

a. Among factory workers, if there are any in your town.

b. Among farm women in the surrounding country.

c. Servants and their conditions of work.

Third Paper: By.....

Subject: Woman's Work in the World.

a. Inside the home. Displacement of household tasks by modern methods and machinery, as spinning, etc.

b. Outside the home.

References:

Working with the Working Woman, by Cornelia Stratton Parker.
Careers for Women, by Catherine Filene.
Woman and Labor, by Olive Schreiner.
The Woman Movement, by Ellen Key.

FIFTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: My Memories of Eighty Years

By Chauncey M. Depew

To be taken behind the political scenes of life and to see the strings pulled and untangled and knotted so that big events are staged successfully or historical scenes manipulated is a privilege open to every reader of this book. The delightful sense of humor which makes friends for the author on every hand gives the volume a happy atmosphere and adds to the pleasure of reading. Chauncey Depew knew intimately the politicians, actors, statesmen, business men, and artists who were prominent during his lifetime and the collection of episodes, anecdotes, and happenings is made possible by his retentive memory.

FIRST PAPER: BY.....

Subject: ANECDOTES FROM THE BOOK.

SECOND PAPER: BY.....

Subject: CHARACTERISTICS OF DEPEW AS SHOWN IN THE BOOK.

a. Depew known as the best after-dinner speaker in the world; how he accomplished this.

b. Qualities that made him the friends of so many people—his gentleness and happy interest in life.

THIRD PAPER: BY.....

Subject: PROMINENT MEN MENTIONED IN THE BOOK WITH SOME COMMENT ON EACH.

NOTE—The book hardly furnishes material for collateral study. Perhaps the best way to treat it would be to have considerable portions of *My Memories* read under the headings of the papers.

SIXTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: Merton of the Movies

By HARRY LEON WILSON

The movie is with us to stay. Most of us see it from the point of view of one of the audience, comfortably seated in a chair near the front. Nevertheless a whole industrial group has grown up around the making of the pictures, and more than one community has sprung into existence with this for its center, California being perhaps the largest of them.

FIRST PAPER: BY.....

Subject: LIFE AT HOLLYWOOD AS SHOWN IN THE BOOK.

SECOND PAPER: BY.....

Subject: SCREEN FAVORITES.

a. Who they are and where they come from.

b. Popular conceptions and misconceptions of them.

c. Real life as lived by the actor contrasted with with the unreal life they act.

Third Paper: By.....

Subject: Present Tendencies of the Movies and Their Possibilities.

a. Mr. Will Hays as director and his aims.

b. Educational films and their uses.

c. Censorship of the movies.

References:

Visit to Movieland. Forum, 63:16-19. Jan., 1920.
Same condensed in *Lit. Dig.*, 64:71-5. March 6, 1920.
Motion Pictures: The Miracle of Modern Photography, by D. W. Griffith. *The Mentor*, July 1, 1921.
How in the World Did They Ever Do That! by Mary D. Mullitt.
Darkest Hollywood, by Robert E. Sherwood.
What Hays Can Do for the Movies? Lit. Dig., Jan. 28, 1922.
Package Library of Extension Division on Movies.
Merton of the Movies, by Harry Leon Wilson.

SEVENTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: Crowding Memories

By Mrs. Thomas Bailey Aldrich

From the seventies on, there flourished in this country a literary life that was a blossoming of the English race set in American soil. Mrs. Aldrich lived in the midst of the New England group, knowing intimately men and women who were the really great people of her time—men and women whose names and work have come down to us as the best the age had to offer. The book is full of racy gossip of the sort not usually printed, while her delightful sense of humor and the warmth of her feelings enable her to present this life in the most appealing way, so that the reader enjoys her experiences as though they had been his own.

First Paper: By.....

Subject: Other Times, Other Manners.

a. Stilted conversation and unnatural manners as compared with the present-day familiarity of speech and action.

b. Fine flavor of the lives of the generation represented in the book—dependence on their own wits and jokes for their amusement. Readings from the book.

SECOND PAPER: BY.....

Subject: AMUSING ANECDOTES AND EXTRACTS FROM THE BOOK.

THIRD PAPER: BY.....

Subject: CHARACTERS OF SOME OF THE NOTABLE PEOPLE IN BOOK. Give quotations concerning each one.

REFERENCES:

Books by any of the writers mentioned, as: Bret Harte, Dean Howells, Mark Twain, Henry James, and so on.

American Literature Since 1870, by Pattee.

EIGHTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: The Great Prince Shan

By E. PHILLIPS OPPENHEIM

This book gives use a glimpse into the intrigues of the future under the workings of the League of Nations and the Versailles Peace Treaty. China, at present, is a group of peoples speaking many different languages, and about to go to pieces through lack of mutual understanding. Outside powers are snatching a piece of the country here and another bit there, while the government is in the hands of so many factions that it is being pulled to pieces.

What might happen if China were awake and united and conscious of its power is shown in this book of Oppenheim's. What the effect might be on the western nations and how the lives of men and women would be touched is made the basis of the story.

FIRST PAPER: BY.....

Subject: THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS.

SECOND PAPER: BY.....

Subject: WOMEN'S POSSIBILITIES IN POLITICS.

a. English Women in Politics.

b. French and Russian Women in Politics.

c. American Women in Politics.

Third Paper: By.....

Subject: International Marriages and Racial Prejudice.

References:

The Great Prince Shan, by Oppenheim, is used as the basis for all three papers.

NINTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: Our Family Affairs

By E. F. Benson

Biography brings us into close touch with the people we want to know more than any other form of literature, while autobiography opens the inmost doors of their hearts and minds to the reader. E. F. Benson is one of England's best-known writers and has put before us a delightful picture of his life and development from a happy child to a popular author. His first book, *Dodo,* made a decided sensation when it was published, some time ago, while his later ones have held the reading public that the first one made for him.

First Paper: By.....

Subject: Child Life in England.

a. Extracts from the book with readings from other English authors; for example the Tom Brown Series.

b. Simplicity of child life in England and its effect on the race in later years.

Second Paper: By.....

Subject: Character of His Mother as Shown in the Book.

Third Paper: By.....

Subject: College Days and Life Work as Shown in the Book.

FOURTH PAPER: BY.....

Subject: SCHOOL LIFE IN ENGLAND.

a. Author's opinion of school games and athletics. Quote pages 149-151.

b. See H. G. Wells on this subject in *Joan and Peter.*

TENTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: Asia at the Cross Roads

By E. ALEXANDER POWELL

FIRST PAPER: BY.....

Subject: SUMMARY OF CONDITIONS IN JAPAN.

Japan is the one country in the world that is possibly our dangerous rival. Our feeling for England is different because we can trust her to live up to the same moral standards that we do ourselves although we may fight her to a finish economically; at least it would be done according to the same general rules of conduct that we live by at home. Japan, to most of us, is an unknown quantity. This book opens our eyes to the reasons why we may not altogether trust Japan, and why she is a great enough power to be a dangerous rival and to bear watching. We should read the newspapers carefully and try to understand what Japan is doing and what she may do next.

Japan, like Germany, was forced to expand, since she had more people than her land would support. Will the territory which she now occupies prove sufficient for her needs and keep her satisfied? The answer to this question determines the relation Japan bears to us and that we bear to her.

SECOND PAPER: BY.....

Subject: SUMMARY OF CONDITIONS IN CHINA.

a. Struggles between different factions in China which allowed Japan to gain her foothold.

b. Dismemberment of China.

c. China today.

References for first and second papers:

Peking Dust, by Ellen la Motte.
Where Half the World is Waking Up, by Clarence Poe.
Modern China, by S. G. Cheng.
The Far East Unveiled, by Frederick Coleman.
The Truth about China and Japan, by B. L. P. Weale.

Third Paper: By.....

Subject: Conditions in Korea.

a. Its Future.
b. Japan's Treatment of Korea.
c. Characteristics of the People.

References:

The Passing of the Koreans, by Homer B. Hulbert.
The Japanese Empire, by Philip Terry.
The Truth About Korea, by C. W. Kendall.
Japan, China and Korea, by J. O. P. Bland.

Fourth Paper: By.....

Subject: Summary of Conditions in the Philippines.

a. Different tribes composing the native population.
b. Complete independence for the Philippines and what it would mean.

Note—This program may be extended to cover two meetings.

ELEVENTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: Minds and Manners of Wild Animals

By William T. Hornaday

The live inhabitants of the globe cannot fail to be an interesting field for study, since they touch our lives in such important ways. Either they are our enemies and put us in danger by their fierceness, as the wolves, bears, alligators and so on, or they are our support and we depend on them after we have domesticated them, as the horse, dog and cow. In any case we are separated from them by their inability to talk and to understand our language, while our knowledge of them is limited in most cases to a very small number. Yet they are related so closely to the human race that everything they feel and do is a matter of importance to us all.

FIRST PAPER: BY.....

Subject: LANGUAGE OF ANIMALS.

Illustrated by readings from chapter three and from personal observation.

SECOND PAPER: BY.....

Subject: BIRDS.

a. Instincts of birds.

b. Migrations of birds

Illustrated by readings from the book and from personal observation.

REFERENCES:

Wild Folk, by Samual Scoville, Jr.

Tracks and Tracking, by Josef Brunner.

The Wild Heart, by Emma Lindsay Squier.

Jungle Book, by Kipling.

TWELFTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: Children of the Market Place

By EDGAR LEE MASTERS

Children of the Market Place has so much material condensed into it that it is almost pushed out of the class of novels into that of political history. It is a vividly painted picture of the middle west in its growth from a pioneer country into civilization.

FIRST PAPER: BY.....

Subject: PIONEER LIFE IN THE MIDDLE WEST.

SECOND PAPER: BY.....

Subject: STEPHEN A. DOUGLAS, HIS LIFE AND CHARACTER.

REFERENCES:

O Pioneers! by Willa Cather.

A Son of the Middle Border, by Hamlin Garland.

A Daughter of the Middle Border, by Hamlin Garland.

Children of the Market Place, by Edgar Lee Masters.

THIRTEENTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: Books and Characters

By Lytton Strachey

This volume is a history of the age through the biographies of its leading people. Strachey knows his epoch and its writers so thoroughly that he is able to draw comparisons and present his characters with the greatest ease.

First Paper: By.....

Subject: Outline of the Book and the Ground that It Covers.

Second Paper: By.....

Subject: Madame du Deffand.

Illustrated by readings from the book

Horace Walpole,—his life and love affairs.

Third Paper: By.....

Subject: Lady Hester Stanhope.

Summarize her character from the book

Note—Any other character in the book may be substituted for those suggested under the second and third papers.

FOURTEENTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topics: The Hairy Ape, Anna Christie and The First Man

By Eugene O'Neill

The three plays in this volume are typical of the present-day stage in America. The wide range of subjects, the frankness of expression and freedom of treatment are found everywhere on the contemporary stage and in the movies, while technique is taken as a matter of course. Eugene O'Neill holds a commanding place among our dramatists, because of his serious thought and his earnest endeavor to present plays that touch life deeply.

The Provincetown Players have had a large hand in bringing out his plays, some of which have been very successful. *The Emperor Jones* and *Anna Christie* both have had long runs in New York. The dramatic world watches for the production of O'Neill's plays as big events of the season.

FIRST PAPER: By.....

Subject: EUGENE O'NEILL,—WHO HE IS AND WHAT HE HAS DONE FOR THE AMERICAN STAGE.

SECOND PAPER: By.....

Subject: SHORT SKETCH OF "ANNA CHRISTIE." Show how the fourth act is added in order to obtain a happy ending.

THIRD PAPER: By.....

Subject: READ "THE HAIRY APE" OR "THE FIRST MAN," AND DISCUSS THE PLAY.

NOTE (to those clubs that have studied O'Neill in other programs)—Spend the time on reading and discussing *The Hairy Ape* or *The First Man.* These have not appeared in any other program.

FIFTEENTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: Watchers of the Sky

By ALFRED NOYES

In *Watchers of the Sky,* the popular English poet Alfred Noyes gives us a glimpse of the wonders of scientific discovery from the day of Copernicus to the opening of the great 100-inch telescope at the observatory on Mount Wilson in California. Life and the world are to all of us a series of discoveries from birth to death. The men Noyes is writing of made the big discoveries about the Universe which make life easier and clearer for us who live after them.

First Paper: By.....

Subject: Galileo.

a. Read Section IV of *Watchers of the Sky.*

b. Full sketch of Galileo's life and discoveries.

References:

Encyclopedia Britannica.

Second Paper: By.....

Subject: Noyes' Conception of the Worth of Men of Science to the World and Their Struggles with Ignorance and Prejudice. Use quotations from the book and read *Tales of the Mermaid Tavern* by Noyes.

Third Paper: By.....

Subject: Noyes' Idea of the Harmony between Scientific Discovery and Religious Belief. Use *Watchers of the Sky* for this.

TERMS FOR THE COURSE

The program, LITERATURE OF TODAY, is based on fifteen books of recent publication, listed on page 23. Material for each meeting will be sent as needed and may be kept at least one month, or longer if special request is made. Ten copies of the program are supplied to each club enrolling and the fee is $5.00. Additional copies of the program will cost fifty cents; additional copies of the books will be supplied at the publishers' prices.

It is probable that clubs studying this program will want to buy some of the books for the town or club library, or for personal use; if so, special arrangements can be made for reduction in prices.

THE LOAN OF BOOKS

Books and other material for this course will be loaned by the Extension Division upon the following terms: The club must first register and pay the required fee. The secretary should order the books at least two weeks before they are to be used. Requests for books by return mail will be attended to, but no guarantee is made that they will reach their destination in time to be of use.

Material must be returned in four weeks from the date issued, which is stamped on the book pocket of the first page. The club is subject to a fine of five cents a day on each package kept over two weeks. Upon request, the time on books will be extended one week, provided registration number and date stamped in book are given.

Transportation charges both ways are borne by the club.

Address all correspondence concerning this program to:

WOMEN'S CLUB SECTION,
BUREAU OF PUBLIC DISCUSSION,
University Extension Division,
Chapel Hill, N. C.

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Memoirs of a Midget, by Walter de la Mare; New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1922, $3.00.

Red Dusk and the Morrow, by Sir Paul Dukes; Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, 1922, $3.50.

Maria Chapdelaine, by Louis Hémon; New York: Macmillan, 1921, $2.00.

Working With the Working Woman, by Cornelia Stratton Parker; Harper, 1922, $2.00.

My Memories of Eighty Years, by Chauncey M. Depew, New York: Scribner's, 1922, $4.00.

Merton of the Movies, by Harry Leon Wilson; Garden City. N. Y.: Doubleday, 1922, $1.75.

Children of the Market Place, by Edgar Lee Masters; New York: Macmillan, 1922, $2.00.

Crowding Memories, by Mrs. Thomas Bailey Aldrich; Boston: Houghton, 1922, $5.00.

The Great Princē Shan, by E. Phillips Oppenheim; Boston: Little, 1922, $2.00.

Our Family Affairs, by E. F. Benson; New York: George H. Doran, 1921, $4.00.

Asia at the Crossroads, by E. Alexander Powell; New York: Century, 1922, $3.00.

Minds and Manners of Animals, by William T. Hornaday; New York: Scribner's, 1922, $2.50.

Books and Characters, by Lytton Strachey; New York: Harcourt, 1922, $2.50.

The Hairy Ape, by Eugene O'Neill; New York: Boni, Liveright, 1922, $2.00.

Watchers of the Sky, by Alfred Noyes; New York: Frederick Stokes, 1922, $2.50.

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Careers for Women, by Catherine Filene; Boston: Houghton, 1920.

Woman and Labor, by Olive Schreiner; New York: Frederick Stokes, 1911.

The Woman Movement, by Ellen Key; New York: Putnam's, 1922.

A Son of the Middle Border, by Hamlin Garland; New York: Macmillan, 1920, $2.00.

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O Pioneers! by Willa Cather; Boston: Houghton, 1913.

My Antonia, by Willa Cather; Boston: Houghton, 1918.

American Literature Since 1870, by Frederick Lewis Pattee; New York: Century, 1921, $2.50.

Joan and Peter, by H. G. Wells; New York: Macmillan, 1918.

Where Half the World is Waking Up, by Clarence Poe; Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, 1911.

Japan, China and Korea, by J. O. P. Bland; New York: Scribner's, 1921, $5.00.

The Truth About China and Japan, by B. L. Putnam Weale; New York: Dodd, Mead, 1919, $2.50.

Korea's Fight for Freedom, by F. A. McKenzie; New York: Revell, 1920.

Wild Folk, by Samuel Scoville, Jr.; New York: Atlantic Monthly Press, 1922.

Tracks and Tracking, by Josef Brunner; New York: Macmillan, 1922, $1.25.

The Wild Heart, by Emma Lindsay Squier; New York: Cosmopolitan Book Corporation, 1922, $2.00.

Jungle Book, by Rudyard Kipling; New York: Century, 1895.

Tales of the Mermaid Tavern, by Alfred Noyes; New York: Stokes, 1913, $1.35.

Darkest Hollywood, by Robert E. Sherwood; New York: Holt, 1922, $2.00.

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UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA EXTENSION BULLETIN

TOWN STUDIES

A PROGRAM FOR THE
STATE FEDERATION OF WOMEN'S CLUBS
STATE LEAGUE OF WOMEN VOTERS
STATE PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS

By HAROLD D. MEYER

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA PRESS
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By HAROLD D. MEYER
Associate Professor of Sociology in the University of North Carolina

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INTRODUCTORY STATEMENT

This program on TOWN STUDIES is the result of a request which came to the Extension Division from the League of Women Voters. The Bureau of Public Discussion was glad to respond and found willing coöperation in the author of this bulletin. It is designed to assist not only the League of Women Voters in a "Know Your Town" study, but all women's clubs interested in the subject. The usual plan of extension programs has been adopted for conducting the course and every effort will be made to serve those who call for assistance. These studies serve to coördinate and promote the efforts of the Bureau of Municipal Information and Research as a part of the plan of coöperation among the bureaus of the University Extension Division—BUREAU OF PUBLIC DISCUSSION.

AUTHOR'S PREFACE

In our social system the welfare of the community depends upon the coöperation of the citizens as a whole. It is therefore becoming more and more evident each year that special training is demanded of those who wish to share intelligently in the conduct of town affairs. Each town marks the point of concentrated human activity. Citizens do not come together just to make a town but the latter grows up to meet the needs of the citizen.

This bulletin on Town Studies is not an attempt to provide a comprehensive study. In no case has an exhaustive treatment of topics been attempted. An effort has been made, however, to suggest a consistent point of view from which studies may be made and benefits derived. The questions given are not planned to cover the entire field nor are all the problems presented solved or remedies given. Suggestions are given only to arouse local interest upon certain questions and to stimulate an investigation by the club to provide remedies or benefits. Many topics will have to be revised to meet local conditions.

The bulletin has been prepared first of all as a study course for those interested in civic development. It is hoped that the bulletin will afford much stimulation along constructive civic lines. All the topics, questions, and points of discussion have been presented with these questions constantly in mind—

What is the community doing for the citizen?
What is the citizen doing for the community?

It is hoped these two ideas will be kept in mind through the entire course.

It must be remembered that a mere formal study of this kind can accomplish little. The exercise of the franchise is not enough. The test of good citizenship lies in an intelligent, continuing, active interest in matters of community growth and welfare.

It is hoped that every club will become actively and practically engaged in community building—building for the future happiness of all concerned and for the real value in living now—a life of service and that life of service for the HOME TOWN.

H. D. M.

A SCORE CARD FOR TOWN STUDIES

This score card is given for the purpose of making a general survey of the field to be studied. It is expected that the local town will be kept in mind and the application of the score card be made to it. The general plan is taken from *Attainable Stanards in Municipal Programs* and the classifications there given have formed the basis for the score. Score the town and see how it stands the test of this plan. It will give at once points of efficiency and those of deficiency. The basis is that of a total of a thousand points.

	Amount	Score
Location and Position	50	
Health, accessibility, economic prosperity—conditions upon which to base the program.		
Location made more healthy by municipal program.		
Greater accessibility through development of roads and highways.		
Better economic basis through development of commerce and rural areas.		
		.....
General Administration	75	
A charter adequate to the social and economic needs.		
A plan of government which brings out civic cooperation.		
Preferably the city-manager plan. Then next the commission plan and next the mayor-council plan.		
A judicial system adequate for social justice.		
An election system good in plan, good in tradition.		
		.....
Financial Organization and Methods	75	
A system of scientific budget-making.		
A system of accounting, operation, records.		
A safe plan for financing public improvements.		

	Amount	Score
A sound method of assessing and collecting revenues.		
A system of auditing satisfactory to local and state authorities.		
Business methods in government.		
		.....
Town Planning	75	
A fair look ahead for health, happiness, and prosperity.		
A plan for recreational facilities, parks, spaces, playgrounds.		
A plan for the extension of streets, transportation facilities, terminals.		
A plan for industrial development and more or less zoning.		
A plan for the development of new residence sections, housing for workmen and for increasing population.		
A plan for civic and cultural centers, residence and industry.		
		.....
Sanitation and Housing	75	
Inspection of congested and neglected areas.		
Sanitary inspection of housing and factories.		
Disposal of garbage and sewage.		
The supervision of building and construction.		
Town-wide plans for cleanliness and filth prevention.		
Any other factors.		
		.....
Public Health	100	
A system of medical inspection service.		
Adequate hospital services, either in or near the town.		
A system of food, milk, meat inspection services.		
A system of child-welfare services.		
A system of laboratory services.		
A statistical service, for publicity and direction.		
		.....
Public Welfare	75	
A plan for correlating all relief and assistance.		
Systematic outdoor relief on a constructive basis.		
A good system of institutional relief.		
The supervision of prisons, reformatories, and other institutions.		

	Amount	Score
Juvenile court work in accordance with the best standards.		
Constructive and preventive work and publicity.		
		.....
Public Safety	75	
A good organization of the police system.		
The regulation and control of traffic and transportation.		
A good system of apprehending and correcting the offender.		
An adequate system of fire protection.		
Substantial plans for fire prevention.		
Adequate plans for protection from vice and harmful influences.		
		.....
Public Works and Utilities	75	
A good system of street construction and maintenance.		
Construction of sewers, disposal plants, city buildings, farms, or other city property.		
The maintenance of a city market and other city-owned public service agencies.		
Ownership or supervision of water works.		
Ownership or supervision of lighting and heating plants.		
Ownership or supervision of transportation, communication, or other public utilities.		
		.....
Public Recreation	75	
The supervision of commercialized recreation.		
The promotion of play and recreation and the profitable use of leisure time.		
A system of parks, playgrounds, and open spaces.		
A system of organized and directed play and recreation.		
A plan for a civic and social center.		
Other activities along this line.		
		.....
Public Education	100	
Effective organization and administration.		
Careful selection, equipment, and supervision of teaching.		
An adequate curriculum, classification, and grading of pupils.		

	Amount	Score
Good school hygiene in grounds, buildings and methods.		
The school serving the whole community.		
A civic interest back of the school.		
		.....
Voluntary and Civic Services	100	
Coöperation between officials and private agencies in public service, libraries, weights and measures, and other services.		
A community council or clearing house for all voluntary agencies.		
A live chamber of commerce or similar organization.		
A good atmosphere in which other needed voluntary agencies may work.		
Coöperation with the churches and denominational educational institutions.		
Other agencies.		
		.....
Services to the Rural Community	50	
A "country-serving" as well as "city-building" municipality.		
The promotion of economic welfare in the country.		
The improvement of communication and transportation.		
The promotion of better organization and coöperation.		
An all-county chamber of commerce.		
		.....

FIRST MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Plan of Study

This first study is for the purpose of giving the club a general idea of the studies to be made. It merely outlines what is to follow. A general survey of the entire field is given. Here the plan of study is introduced. Suggestions and aids are given. Methods of obtaining information for the papers to be prepared are shown. A general insight into the town, into its life, its aims and its pathway is attempted. While the meeting is informational it should also be stimulating.

It is suggested that the officers of the club present the general plan of study.

After giving the general outline, make a brief statement of what each study will involve. This will be obtained by reading over each study.

Explain how members may receive information for each study and how to use the sources given.

Explain the method of each meeting and what the club expects, in a general way, to accomplish by the study.

Tell about the questions listed at the end of each study and also the list of questions given in the back of the bulletin.

Suggest some ways by which the meetings will be made more interesting and explain the part of the bulletin which gives suggested types of meetings.

Also enlist the interest of the members in the special features to be undertaken during the year. Some of these are suggested under the head of Types of Meetings.

Make this meeting a helpful one in every way. Make the plan of study clear and tell of the good to be derived. Appeal for interest in all the activities that are undertaken.

Allow the members to ask questions about the studies and use any local talent you possess to make this meeting a vital and an interesting one.

SECOND MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: **Classification and Historical Background**

It is of interest to know the history of our town. It is true that at times we are more familiar with the history of foreign countries than that of our own land and community. There could be no better beginning for the course than for every member to obtain an historical background of the town. It may be found difficult to obtain information historically but the very gathering of this information will be of benefit and pleasure to all who participate. Use libraries, old newspapers, letters, prints, photographs, and other materials that may be available. If a history has not been written, would it not be a good idea for the club to begin writing one?

FIRST PAPER: By.....

Subject: OUR TOWN POPULATION CLASSIFICATION.

A census study—statistics about cities and towns in the United States and this State.
Our town grouping and classification.
Population of the town—fifty years ago and for every census period up to the present time.
Types of population in the town. Divided by census reports.
The number of native born and those of foreign stock.
Immigration statistics for the town.
Grouping according to age, color, sex, and nativity.
Present growth of the town and future outlook.

SECOND PAPER: By.....

Subject: OUR TOWN'S HISTORY.

General history of the location and position.
First settlement.
The early beginning of the town.
Names of some of the early settlers and families.
Traces of those families in the population of today.
General history from the early period to this time.

THIRD PAPER: By.....

Subject: INTERESTING HISTORICAL EVENTS.

Events of unusual note in the town—in war time and in peace.
Notable people that the community has produced.
Our town in relation to the development of the State.
Our town and the World War.
Our town in recent reconstruction.
Future outlook.

SOME REFERENCES FOR THESE PAPERS:

Attainable Standards in Municipal Programs. University Extension Bulletin, Vol. 1. No. 7. Pages 94, 97, 111, 114.
Dunn, *The Community and the Citizen.* Chapters I and II.
Zeigler and Jaquette, *Our Community.* Chapters I, II and III.
Evans, *Town Improvement.* Chapter I.
Census Reports.
The State Historical Association.
Fassett, *Handbook of Municipal Government.* Chapter I.
Any local material and information that may be obtained.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. Have an informal discussion of historical events of the town.
2. Give some of the historical stories that you have heard told by the old inhabitants.
3. Narrate some events of worth in your experience that relate to the town.
4. Are there any disputed historical statements about the town? Discuss.
5. What is the town doing at present to make history that is of worth?
6. Study the census reports and classifications.
7. Make a careful study of the growth or decline of the town.
8. Study the different census groupings as to age, color, sex, and nativity.
9. What is the rate of increase in the town now and what is being done to strengthen this increase?

THIRD MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: **Location and Position**

Every citizen has a general feeling of pride in the location of his town. He is also interested in its relation to the state and the neighborhood. Every community has its "bests" and its "first in" and the like. For many people the home town is the world. There all the activities of life are centered. We should all become informed as to the location of our town in a geographic, historic, economic, political, and agricultural way. It is well to notice the importance of location as to health, sanitation, condition of roads, drainage, and many other things.

FIRST PAPER: By.....

Subject: THE LOCATION OF THE TOWN—GEOGRAPHIC, HISTORIC, AND ECONOMIC.

The geographic location of the town.
- Latitude and longitude.
- Climate.
- Topography.
- Location in regard to the State.

Historic.
- Historical stories of the town.
- Historical background.
- Relation to history of State's development.

Economic.
- Railroads entering the town.
- Principal business and agricultural development.
- Relationship to sea coast and main lines.
- Business advantages.

SECOND PAPER: By.....

Subject: THE LOCATION OF THE TOWN—POLITICAL AND AGRICULTURAL.

Political.

- Relation to national divisions.
  - Congressional district.
  - Federal judicial district.
  - Other relationships.
- Relation to State divisions.
  - Senatorial divisions.
  - Legislative districts.
  - County.
  - Militia districts.
  - School districts.
- Relation to local divisions.
  - General local divisions.
  - Wards.
  - Tax divisions.
  - Other relations.

Agricultural location.

- Soil survey.
- Main crops.
- Marketing facilities.
- General soils belt.
- Climate belt.
- Other relations.

THIRD PAPER: By.....

Subject: GENERAL ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF THE LOCATION.

Particular advantages of the community.

Some of the disadvantages of the location and position.

Ways in which the community may develop better advantages and correct disadvantages.

Suggestions for future development and progress along these lines.

SOME REFERENCES FOR THESE PAPERS:

Attainable Standards in Municipal Programs. University Extension Bulletin, Vol. 1. No. 7. Page 122.

Dunn, *The Community and the Citizen.* Chapters III and IV.

Census Reports.

Geographies.

Encyclopedias.

Histories—National, State and Local.

General Text Books on Economics.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. Study and general geographic relation of the community to the Nation, State and County.
2. Give a few pioneer stories of the community.
3. What effect does the agricultural location have on the town?
4. Study ways in which the town may improve its location in every way.
5. What are some of the advantages the town possesses that as yet have not been utilized?
6. Are the obstacles of the disadvantages too powerful to overcome? What is the community doing to remedy these?
7. Is there a general satisfaction and belief in the community for its future growth?

FOURTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: **Administration**

As a general rule, the average inhabitant of a town is little interested in the town officials. If things do not go smoothly we are prone to grumble but we are not active in aiding to make the administration what it should be. The citizen is the stockholder in the great civic corporation. As such he should take an active interest in the officials of the town and study their offices and duties. We should study the plan of town administration.

FIRST PAPER: By.....

Subject: OUR TOWN OFFICIALS AND ADMINISTRATION.

The town plan of administration
- The officers—Position, title, how elected, term of office, important duties.
- Departments—Finance, police, fire, civil, etc.
- Functioning of these departments.

SECOND PAPER: By.....

Subject: PLANS OF TOWN GOVERNMENT.

City-manager plan.
- Organization.
- Administration.
- Illustrations of proper functioning of the plan.

Commission plan.
- Organization.
- Administration.
- Illustrations.

Mayor-council plan.
- Organization.
- Administration.
- Illustrations of proper functioning of the plan.

THIRD PAPER: By.....

Subject: A JUDICAL SYSTEM ADEQUATE FOR SOCIAL JUSTICE. AN ELECTION SYSTEM GOOD IN PLAN AND IN TRADITION.

The judicial system in the town.
- Magistrates of the law—duties and functioning.
- Recorder courts—the recorder and his work.
- City court—terms and work.
- Superior and Federal courts.

The juvenile courts—organization and functioning.
- The work of the town for the juvenile offender.

The election system.
- Methods of voting.
- Qualifications for voting, how to vote, when to vote.
- Systems of voting.
- Our town and its voting population.

SOME REFERENCES FOR THESE PAPERS:

Attainable Standards in Municipal Programs. University Extension Bulletin, Vol. 1. No. 7. Pages 17, 28, 31, 33, 37.

Dunn, *The Community and The Citizen.* Chapters XVIII, XIX, XX, XXII.

Zeigler, *Our Community.* Chapters XVI and XVII.

Capes, *The Modern City and its Government.* Chapters III, V, VI, VII, VIII, IX, X, XI.

Douglass, *The Little Town.* Chapters V and VII.

Fassett, *Handbook of Municipal Government.* Chapters II, III, IV.

Gilbert, *American Cities.* Chapters IX and X.

Goodnow, *City Government in the United States.* Chapters VII and VIII.

Carroll, *Citizenship for Women.* Extension Leaflet. Pages 25-29.

Local Information.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Name the town officers and tell some of their important duties.
2. Are the town officials efficient in every way?
3. Discuss the different plans of town government. Make a comparison and contrast study of the plans. Give illustrations of each.
4. What are the outstanding advantages of the plan now in our town? What are some of the disadvantages?
5. Is local law functioning? Is it lax, or quick of action?
6. What is the best way for the community to deal with a child when the child is an offender against society?
7. Make a study of the various election forms. What is the Australian ballot system? Are the elections of the town carried on in an orderly manner?
8. Is there general interest on the part of the average citizen in community government?

FIFTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: **Financial Methods and Organization**

The prosperity of a people depends largely on financial conditions in the community. The financial methods and plan of financial organization in the community are not what they could be in most towns. This is probably one of the most interesting parts of town life and certainly one of importance. We should study the methods and organization of our town along financial lines. Study tax systems and the problem of taxation in the community. In making a helpful study of this problem we can contribute much to the happiness of the community. Every effort to improve conditions will be worth while.

FIRST PAPER: By.....

Subject: OUR TOWN PLAN OF FINANCE.

Cost of maintaining the town.
- Means of financing this cost—State and National aid.
  - Taxes.
  - Bond issues.
  - Licenses.
  - Other sources of income and revenue.

Methods of assessing and collecting revenues.
The abc of a tax system.
Needed revenues and suggested methods of obtaining them.

SECOND PAPER: By.....

Subject: MODERN METHODS OF FINANCING THE TOWN.

A system of scientific budget-making.
- A budget and how it is made.
- Making a budget for the community.
- Values in the budget plan.

A system of accounting, operation and records.
- Methods of accounting and values.
- Knowing the cost and saving on modern plans.
- A system of operation that is efficient.
- Keeping town records—in every phase of the finance plan.

Plans of financing public improvements. Illustrations.

THIRD PAPER: By.....

Subject: BUSINESS METHODS IN TOWN GOVERNMENT.

A comparison and contrast study of the financial affairs of the town and of a well-organized business.
Common-sense views in handling the business of the community.
Spending the community's money for preventive reasons is saving.
A stinting of spending when needed is costly. Illustrations.
Putting experienced men to do certain work for the town.
Have the expert handle things in his line.
The cost of politics in town government.
A system of auditing satisfactory to local and state authorities.
The value in auditing.
Keeping up with public funds—income and expenditures.

SOME REFERENCES FOR THESE PAPERS:

Attainable Standards of Municipal Programs, University Extension Bulletin, Vol, 1. No. 7. Pages 45, 61, 73, 114.
Zeigler, *Our Community*. Chapters XII and XIII.
Evans, *Town Improvements*. Chapters XVI and XVII.
Capes, *The Modern City and Its Government*. Chapters IV and XIV.
Nolen, *City Planning*. Chapter XVII.
Fassett, *Handbook of Municipal Govrenment*. Chapters VIII and IX.
Goodnow, *City Government in the United States*. Chapter XIII.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What is the cost per year of running your town? How is the money spent?
2. What are all the sources of revenue for the town? How do the assets meet the liabilities?
3. What are some of the modern methods of financing a town? Compare these plans to the one by which your town is run.
4. What is the rate of taxation in your town? Study the general subject of taxation.
5. Has your town a bonded indebtedness? What is the amount? For what were the bonds issued? How are the bonds being paid?
6. What are the values in bond issues for public improvements?
7. Can you give the schedule of licenses in the town? How are these rates fixed? What are some of the things that pay high license and some that pay low rates?
8. Are there any unbusinesslike methods used in the administration of public funds in the town? Can these conditions be remedied?
9. What is the general opinion of the community as to the question of taxation? Is there always an opposition to taxation for improvements?

SIXTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: **Town Planning**

It is a wise community that looks ahead. A glance at the average town and one is convinced that town planning is needed. Those communities that just grew up and are well advanced should plan for future growth. Towns in the making should have a plan and carry it out as nearly as possible. Town planning is necessary for many reasons. Especially is this true financially. Many times a town is put to much added expense because of neglected planning. A town beautiful must be planned. Study the many values in town planning and make an effort to have some planning for the community.

FIRST PAPER: By.....

Subject: OUR TOWN AND TOWN PLANNING.

Diagram and general layout of the town.
- The plan of the business section.
- The residential section and its development.
- Layout of streets.
- Width, length, and direction of streets.
- Trees and other ornamental parts of the town.

Some outstanding results of no planning.
Development going on at present.
Making changes to help the situation.

SECOND PAPER: By.....

Subject: TOWN PLANS.

Plans of towns that were laid out.
Illustrations.
What it has meant to the town to look ahead.
Plans for recreational activities. Park space. Playgrounds.
A plan for the extension of streets, transportation, terminals, and land sections.
A plan of industrial development.
A plan for suburban development.
Caring for the increase in population.

THIRD PAPER: By.....

Subject: THE FUTURE GROWTH OF OUR TOWN.

Some of the developments that are now taking place.
Suggestions from second paper as to plans for growth.
Changes that may be made and their benefits.
Some unsightly places turned into beauty spots.
Making use of all waste land and like sections.
Benefiting by previous mistakes.
Our future outlook.

SOME REFERENCES FOR THESE PAPERS:

Attainable Standards in Municipal Programs, University Extension Bulletin, Vol. 1. No. 7. Pages 94, 95, 96, 97, 108 and 111.

Zeigler, *Our Community.* Chapter VIII.

Evans, *Town Improvement.* Chapters II, III, IV, V, VI, XII, XIII, XIV.

Coker, *Design and Improvement of School Grounds.* University Extension Special Series, No. 1.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What is meant by zoning discussing the idea.
2. Work out plans whereby many unsightly places in the community may be transformed into places of civic beauty.
3. Discuss plans for future growth of the town along certain lines that seem sure at present.
4. Which way is the town building? Why? Are there other directions in which it could grow?
5. Is the business section congested? Is there any relief?
6. Is the town crowded with advertising posters? Are they in places that mar the civic beauty?
7. What are some of the unsightly forms in town that may be discarded or prevented from further expansion?
8. What is the general attitude of the town to town planning and having concerted action in town growth?

SEVENTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: **Sanitation and Housing**

Growing interest is being shown in community sanitation. It is no longer entirely an individual matter. The cleanliness of the community marks the happy development of the people. A civic pride is thus evolved that could be secured in no other way. Interest is also being shown in housing conditions and its many problems. Zoning in towns is very popular now. Town planning for future development is proper. General interest in architecture and plans for the beautification of grounds is evident on all sides. Business structures, office buildings, factories, and apartment houses should all bespeak civic beauty and civic consciousness.

FIRST PAPER: By.....

Subject: TOWN SANITATION.

General condition of the town as to sanitation.
Sanitary inspection of houses, factories, and all public places.
Inspection of congested and neglected areas.
Disposing of garbage and sewage.
Facilities adequate to the needs of the community and sanitary in method.
Inspection of public places.
Yard inspection and regulating ordinances.
Street and road cleaning.
Keeping the town clean.

SECOND PAPER: By.....

Subject: TOWN HOUSING.

General plan of the town as to placing houses, making streets, and laying out new territory.
Form of architecture prevalent in the town.
Supervision of building and construction in certain areas.
Prevention of congestion.
Caring for congested districts.
Developing certain districts along definite architectural lines.
Assuring against fire—town ordinances regarding this.
Other town ordinances affecting building and housing.

THIRD PAPER: By.....

Subject: A CLEAN-UP CAMPAIGN.

The meaning of a clean-up campaign.
Town-wide plans for cleanliness and for prevention of filth.
Our town's clean-up campaign.
Its organization.
    Committees.
    Work to be done.
    Plan of procedure.
    Time and methods.
    Disposing of the waste and rubbish.
Making the campaign an all-year program.
The essential values in being a CLEAN TOWN.

SOME REFERENCES FOR THESE PAPERS:

Dunn. *The Community and the Citizen.* Chapters XVI and Table II Appendix.
Evans, *Town Improvement.* Chapters X and XI.
Fassett, *Handbook of Civic Improvement.* Chapter IX.
Odum, *Constructive Ventures in Government.* University Extension Leaflet. Vol. IV. No. 1.
Saville, *Sanitation in the South.* University Extension Leaflet. Vol. II. No. 9.
State Department of Health.
State Department of Public Welfare.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What are some of the methods of disposing of garbage in the town not in keeping with the town plan? What can be done?
2. Make a study of the town toilets—especially those of the school and public buildings. Are there any types of toilets that are not in keeping with the town plan?
3. Discuss ways in which the town may improve its housing situation.
4. What is the condition of housing space? Rents? Homes owned by inhabitants or rented?
5. Study the town as to general architectural plan.
6. Decide on the effective organization of a clean-up campaign. Make attractive suggestions for the campaign. Study values in the campaign.
7. What is the general feeling in regard to sanitation in the community?

EIGHTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: **Public Health**

There is nothing more vital to the welfare of the community than health. Health, too, is no longer an entirely individual matter. The community should be intensely interested in the general health of the population. The health of the community is a determining factor in the happiness of the community. All that can should be done to keep the health movement up-to-date. Every agency and force engaged in this work should be utilized to the fullest.

FIRST PAPER: By.....

Subject: CARING FOR THE SICK OF THE COMMUNITY.

The doctors of the community.
- Number, types, general ability, adequate for needs.
- General methods of practice, visits, and charges.

Adequate hospital services.
- The hospital or near-by hospital for the community.
- Number of beds, equipment, care, condition. free clinic.
- How financed—private or public ownership.

Caring for general epidemics.
- Contagious and infectious diseases and methods of handling them.
- Laws of the community for certain diseases.
- Quarantine, vaccination and inoculation.

SECOND PAPER: By.....

Subject: COMMUNITY PREVENTIVE MEASURES.

The water supply. How it is obtained. Precautions to keep it pure.

Getting rid of the community garbage and sewage.
- Methods of disposing of community garbage.
- Methods of disposing of human waste materials.
- Ordinances effecting this matter.

The milk and food supply.
- The condition of dairies. General inspection.
- Ordinances regarding this matter.
- Sources of food supply.
- Requiring sanitary conditions in meat markets and grocery stores.

General condition of the town. Cleanliness. Sanitation.

All citizens working for a town of good health.

THIRD PAPER: By.....

Subject: HELPING THE COMMUNITY TO BE HEALTHY.

The local board of health. Its organization and plan of work. Its powers.
The health officer. His work. Plan of procedure.
The health nurse. A community servant. What can be done. Illustrations.
The State department of health. Its organization and aids to local towns.
The national department of health. Public Health Service.
Physical education in the schools. Physical examination in the school.
How this is done. Results. Preventives and salvaging.
A survey of health conditions of the town.
How this may be made. Results to be expected.
General defects in body.
General defects in mind.
Work being done to aid in these conditions.
Health aid needs of the community.

SOME REFERENCES FOR THESE PAPERS:

Attainable Standards of Municipal Programs. University Extension Bulletin, Vol. 1. No. 7. Pages 118 and 122.
Odum, *Constructive Venture in Government.* University Extension Leaflet. Vol. IV.
Dunn, *The Community and The Citizen.* Chapter IX.
Zeigler, *Our Community.* Chapter IV.
James, *Handbook of Civic Improvements.* Chapters II, III, and IV.
Blair, *Public Hygiene.*
Godfrey, *The Health of the City.*
Saper, *Modern Methods of Street Cleaning.*
The National Public Health Service.
The State Department of Health.
The Local Health Officers and Workers.
County and Town Officials.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What is the death rate for the town? What is the birth rate?
2. What is the death rate for children of one year of age and under? What are the general causes of death in these instances?
3. What means are employed in the community to secure pure food?
4. What are some of the town ordinances for the protection of health? Are any of these ordinances commonly violated? If so, why? Can you do anything to secure the enforcement of such ordinances as it seems expedient to have?

NINTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: **Public Welfare**

There has been an increasingly wholesome interest in public welfare. A study of social problems in their relation to the community is essential in a program of this nature. There is a more intelligent understanding of the relationship of charity and public welfare. The general sympathetic feeling toward the wards of the community is now corrected by a scientific study and procedure for the best future interest of the ward and society. Preventive as well as salvaging measures are being undertaken. Towns are realizing that they need every citizen and every citizen a normal, productive being.

FIRST PAPER: By.....

Subject: A COUNTY SYSTEM OF PUBLIC WELFARE.

The public welfare law of North Carolina. Its plan and procedure.
The State department of public welfare.
- The divisions of the department.
- Officers.
- Functioning.

The county system of public welfare under the state department.
- The superintendent of public welfare. Duties and work.
- The county board of public welfare. Duties and work.

SECOND PAPER: By.....

Subject: CORRELATING ALL RELIEF AND ASSISTANCE.

County officials and their work.
Voluntary agencies working in the community.
- American Red Cross—organization and work. Aids to the community.
- Charitable organization of the church—work and accomplishments.
- Fraternal orders and their functioning.
- Other sources.

Correlating these efforts for the best interest of the needy and the community.
The community council. What the plan means. Illustrations.
The community chest. What it is and how it functions. Illustrations.

Institutional relief.
- Home for the poor and aged.
- Orphanages.
- Prisons and reformatories.
- Detention homes.
- Places for defectives and deserted.
- General condition of these institutions.

THIRD PAPER: By.....

Subject: SOME OUTSTANDING ILLUSTRATIONS OF VALUES IN PUBLIC WELFARE WORK.

Family case work.
- Number of illustrations showing relief and constructive work in families.
- Procedure in handling these cases.
- Value of such work to the community.

Interest in prisoners.
- Illustrations showing work with the prisoner.
- Constructive results obtained.
- Parole and pardon.

Juvenile court work.
- The juvenile court and its work.
- The juvenile delinquent and the responsibility of society.
- Handling juvenile delinquents. Illustrations.

Preventive measures.
- Playgrounds and supervised play.
- Wholesome recreation.
- Employment bureaus.
- Other activities at work along this line.

SOME REFERENCES FOR THESE PAPERS:

Attainable Standards in Municipal Programs. University Extension Bulletin, Vol. 1. No. 7. Pages 108 and 122.

Zeigler, *Our Community.* Chapters XIV and XV.

Evans, *Town Improvement.* Chapter XI.

James, *Handbook of Civic Improvement.* Chapters VII and VIII.

Goodnow, *City Government in the United States.* Chapter V.

Odum, *Constructive Ventures in Government.* University Extension Leaflet.

Handbook of the American Red Cross.

The State Department of Public Welfare.

The county officials and county reports.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Is there much house-to-house or street begging in the town? Are there any ordinances against it? Are these ordinances enforced?
2. What are some of the causes of juvenile delinquency in the town?
3. What is done for the feeble-minded? Crippled? Tubercular? Blind?
4. What part do the women of the community play in welfare work?
5. Classify the criminals of the town and study the environment of each?
6. What institutions are in the town? Discuss their general welfare work.
7. What are the conditions in prisons, county home, and other public welfare institutions of this type?
8. Is the town doing all it can to aid these people? Discuss the values in salvaging the unfortunate and in taking preventive measures for the future.

TENTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: **Public Safety**

Community protection of life and property is placed in the hands of the local government. The state and national governments only interfere when the interests of each are at stake or when the local government cannot cope with the situation. It is essential that these officials be of the highest type of citizenship. The police and fire departments should be kept out of politics. Only the general welfare of the people should be considered. Make a study of all the phases of this question and do all that is expedient to bring the community to a high point of efficiency along this line.

FIRST PAPER: By.....

Subject: POLICE PROTECTION.

The police department. Organization and administration.
- Efficiency.
- Number per capita population and area patrolled by each.
- The town constable and his duties.
- The sheriff and his work.
- Other police officials and their duties.

Apprehending the offender.
- Illustrations of protection to the community.
- Work of the courts.
- Neglect in this matter.

The regulation and control of traffic and transportation.
- Street regulations regarding vehicles.
- Warnings at street crossings.
- The traffic officer. Responsibility.
- Town ordinances regarding traffic and transportation.
- Carrying out these regulations.

Adequate protection for the town.

SECOND PAPER: By.....

Subject: FIRE PROTECTION.

The fire-fighting facilities of the town.
- The fire department. Paid or volunteer.
- General equipment for fighting fires.
- Condition of this equipment.
- Warning the community of fires.

Fire preventives.

Caution in congested districts.
Keeping equipment in good condition.
Caution in making fires.
Ordinances against throwing cigarettes and cigars in dangerous places.
Caution in the home.
Other sources of caution to be observed.

Loss to the community on account of fires.

Numbers of fires each month. Cost. Loss to the community.
An investigation as to the causes of these fires.
Effect on community progress and development.
The water supply and fires.

THIRD PAPER: By.....

Subject: ADEQUATE PLANS FOR PROTECTION FROM VICE AND HARMFUL ENVIRONMENTS.

Lighting the town at nights.

General lighting situation.
Places that need better lighting. Reasons.
Effect of a well-lighted town.

Ordinances of the town regulating certain types of business not constructively good for the community.

Ordinances against the licensing of places of vice, gambling, and ill-fame.

The segregated district and its evils.

Developing a wholesome atmosphere in the community.

SOME REFERENCES FOR THIS PAPER

Odum, *Constructive Ventures in Government.* University Extension Leaflet.

Dunn. *The Community and The Citizen.* Chapters X. XI and XIV.

Zeigler, *Our Community.* Chapter V.

James, *Handbook of Civic Improvement.* Chapter V.

Goodnow, *City Government in the United States.* Chapter IX.

A survey of local conditions.

Local material.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Discuss in a general way police protection and apply the discussion to the town.
2. What is the status of the town police force? Is it free from politics? Are there any tendencies to hush the fighting of evil conditions?
3. Make a careful study of the community for fire-traps and see if these conditions can be remedied.

4. Are the ordinances for fire protection enforced? Are any new ordinances needed?
5. What is the general feeling on the part of the community toward vice?
6. Is there a segregated district and how is it regulated? Why keep it? Is not that licensing an evil?
7. Study the general environment from the standpoint of child welfare.
8. Are there any evil influences for the growing children?
9. What is being done in the community to have a wholesome citizenry?

ELEVENTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: **Public Works and Utilities**

As the community grows in population and activity it becomes more complex. It is necessary to work things out on a public basis for the general good. In matters of lighting, furnishing the water supply, disposing of sewage, building of streets and roads, furnishing transportation, and many other activities the town assumes the business and carries it on for the people. These organizations belong to the people. They are serving the people. Study them and see if the community is getting the best results in every way. Splendid public works and utilities bespeak a growing and prosperous people.

FIRST PAPER: By.....

Subject: PUBLIC WORKS AND UTILITIES OWNED BY THE TOWN.

Ownership or supervision of water-works.
- The source of water supply.
- Methods of purifying the water.
- Cost of water to the people of the town.
- Adequate facilities for the town.

Ownership or supervision of lighting and heating plants.
- Lighting the town. Lighting the home.
- How the power is obtained.
- The fuel supply—wood, coal, electricity
- The amount of the supply and the number to be served.
- Other factors involved.

Ownership or supervision of transportation, communication, or other public utilities.
- The street cars of the town.
- The jitney systems.
- Mails and deliveries.
- Telephone system.

Street construction and maintenance.
- How streets are built and their up-keep.
- New streets.
- Cost for maintenance and construction—per capita and how the money is obtained.
- General condition of streets and roads.
- The need for new streets and roads, or for bettering the present ones.

SECOND PAPER: By.....

Subject: PUBLIC WORKS AND UTILLITIES OWNED BY PRIVATE CONCERNS.

The study will be similar to that of the first paper. The first paper dealt with public ownership and operation, while this paper deals with private ownership. Use the same outline plan.

THIRD PAPER: By.....

Subject: COMPARISON AND CONTRAST STUDY ON PUBLIC AND PRIVATE OWNERSHIP AND OPERATION OF PUBLIC UTILITIES.

Study the conditions in the town.
Discuss public ownership and private ownership.
Obtain statistics from other places and make comparison and contrast study.
Study the efficiency of one plan over the other under each condition.
Study the cost of the one plan as compared with the cost of the other.
Relation to the individual.
Relation to the community.

SOME REFERENCES FOR THESE PAPERS

Attainable Standards for Municipal Programs. University Extension Bulletin. Vol. 1. No. 7. Pages 94 and 41.
Dunn, *The Community and The Citizen.* Chapter XIII.
Zeigler, *Our Community.* Chapters IX, X and XI.
Nolen, *City Planning.* Chapters II, III, IV, V, IX, X, XI, XII, and XIII.
Gilbert. *American Cities.* Chapter VIII.
Local organizations.
Local conditions.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Debate the question: Are privately or publicly owned utilities more advantageous to the town?
2. Are the public utilities sufficient for the need of the town? Are they able to care for future growth?
3. What are some of the public utilities that should be owned by the town? What are some that should be privately owned?
4. What is the general effect of well-organized and well-operated public utilities in the community?
5. When a public utility fails to function properly what effect is found in the reaction of the community?
6. What is the general feeling of the community toward public utilities?

TWELFTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: **Public Recreation**

Every period of social advance is characterized by a spirit of play. This is true of the contemporary generation. There are now few cities without their playgrounds and municipal recreational centers and activities. The play movement is one of vital concern for every town. It is a constructive adventure for the community. Supervision and direction of the recreational life and activities of the community are essential. A town with a future outlook will provide ample room for wholesome recreation.

FIRST PAPER: By.....

Subject: THE RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES OF THE COMMUNITY.

The recreational activities of the young people.
- Playgrounds and their use by the children of the community.
- The general activities of the playground.
- The location and condition of the playground.
- Games for the children.
- Leaders and supervisors.
- General out-of-school or leisure-time activities.
- What the boys and girls of the community do for evening recreation.
- Clubs for boys and girls. Their aims and activities.

The school and the play movement.

The church and the play movement.

Commercialized amusements in the community. Their regulation.

The recreational life of the adult population.
- General leisure-time pursuits.
- Adult clubs. Their aims and activities.
- General interest of the adults in the play movement.

SECOND PAPER: By.....

Subject: SUPERVISED PLAY AND SOME OF THE VALUES IN PLAY.

The need for supervision in play.
- Teaching the child to play.
- Leadership in play and its meaning.
- Supervising the commercialized recreational activities of the community.
- Values of supervision.

Choosing the proper types of games, plays, and activities for children of certain ages.

The value of wholesome amusements.

Some of the values in play.

Physical values.

Mental values.

Moral values.

Social values.

Preventive values.

Play and human instincts.

THIRD PAPER: By.....

Subject: COMMUNITY HOLIDAYS AND FESTIVALS.

Holidays observed by the community.

The day and its meaning.

Proper observance.

Features and program.

Methods of celebrating.

Holidays which are entirely local.

The day and its meaning.

Proper observance.

Programs and features.

Methods of celebrating.

Festival days and feature recreational activities.

Community festivals.

Pageants and their value to the community.

Community sings.

The story hour and other activities.

The athletic field day.

The community fair.

SOME REFERENCES FOR THESE PAPERS:

Attainable Standards for Municipal Programs. University Extension Bulletin, Vol. 1. No. 7. Pages 111 and 112.

Zeigler, *Our Community.* Chapter VII.

Evans, *Town Improvement.* Chapters VII and IX.

Nolen, *City Planning.* Chapters VI. VII and VIII.

Rainwater. *The Play Movement.*

Curtis, *Play and Recreation.*

Lee, *Play and Education.*

Meyer, *The Rural Playground.* University Extension Bulletin, Vol. 1 No. 6.

Koch. *Plays for Amateurs.* University Extension Series No. 36.

Koch, *Play Production for Amateurs.* University Extension Bulletin. Vol. 1. No. 14.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Are there many people in the community who do not have the time for recreation? Why? What results are to be expected? What can the community do for this class?
2. What are some of the special opportunities that country boys and girls have for recreation? What special opportunities do city boys and girls possess?
3. Discuss the differences of sections and try to give each group those essential things which may be lacking.
4. What are the facilities for recreation in your community—those already in use and those which may be used?
5. Are there any business firms or organizations aiding recreational activity in the community? To what extent?
6. Is there any form of supervised play in the town?
7. Are there any outside agencies aiding in the play movement?
8. Discuss proper and improper ways of celebrating holidays and festival days?
9. What is the general attitude of the community towards play and recreation?

THIRTEENTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: **Public Education**

Public education is well grounded in the life of the people of our Nation. Rapid strides are being made in every direction for the future welfare of the child. Compulsory education, consolidation of rural schools, vocational training, physical education, proper construction of school buildings, beautification of school grounds, interest of the community in school activities, and the teaching of public welfare bespeak progress and wholesome development. There is a pronounced growth of democracy in the educational system. There is nothing we should leave undone for the proper educational life of the children in the community.

FIRST PAPER: By.....

Subject: THE SCHOOLS OF OUR COMMUNITY.

The school building, grounds and equipment.

- The school building.
  - The general appearance and structure of the buildings.
  - Proper methods of lighting, heating and ventilating.
  - The capacity of the building and the needs of the community.
  - Other factors to consider about the school building.
- The school grounds.
  - The conditions of the school gruonds.
  - Beautifying the school grounds.
  - Size and shape of the ground and general divisions.
  - The playground.
  - The school garden.
- School equipment.
  - Number of teachers and their work.
  - Number of rooms and pupils per room.
  - General school equipment—desks, chairs, blackboards, books, and the like.
  - General playground equipment.
  - Equipment for such subjects as manual training, home economics, and music.
  - Condition of equipment and needs.

SECOND PAPER: By.....

Subject: EFFECTIVE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION.

Effective organization.
- General organization of the school.
- The school board: Members, number, how elected, duties, functioning.
- The superintendent or principal. His work.
- The teaching staff: Number, how elected, salary, qualifications, duties and functions.

School administration.
- Relation of board to superintendent and teachers.
- Relation of teachers to board.
- Relation of community to teachers.
- Relation of teachers to community.

The school program and its functioning.
- The curriculum. General outline and plan.
- Reports. How they are made and how signed.
- Records and their value.

Financing the school
- How the school receives its fund.
- Sources from which the funds are obtained.
- Bond issues for school improvements.
- Salaries of school officials and teachers.
- Cost of running the school for full term.

Needs of the school along administrative lines.

THIRD PAPER: By.....

Subject: SOME FEATURES OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM AND SOME MODERN TRENDS IN EDUCATION.

Some features in the school system.
- General standing in the State and neighboring towns.
- Attendance and studies.
- Physical education and play.
- Vocational training—all phases of work.
- Other features.

Some modern trends.
- Vocational training.
- Physical education.
- Hot lunches.
- Health education.
- School as a community center.
- Other modern trends.

SOME REFERENCES FOR THESE PAPERS:

Attainable Standards in Municipal Programs. University Extension Bulletin, Vol. 1, No. 7. Pages 113, 114 and 122.

Dunn, *The Community and The Citizen.* Chapter XV.
Zeigler, *Our Community.* Chapter VI.
Evans. *Town Improvement.* Chapters VIII and XII.
James, *The Handbook of Civic Improvement.* Chapter VI.
Meyer, *Parent-Teacher Association Handbook.* University Extension Bulletin.
State Department of Education.
Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.
Local Officials and Reports.
County Officers.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What does the family do toward the education of the child that the school cannot do? What does the school do that the family cannot?
2. What are some of the qualifications required for teachers in your community? How are the teachers elected? What is the salary scale?
3. What do the schools cost the town per year? How much is this per child educated? What are some of the financial needs of the school? What is the general interest in educational matters?

FOURTEENTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: **Voluntary and Civic Services**

There are a number of voluntary agencies aiding the town in its forward trends. These agencies coöperate with town officials and in a way relieve them of many responsible civic duties. In every line of community activity these organizations exist. It is sometimes well to have them form a community council to obtain concerted action, prevent overlapping, and to be able to cover the entire community with their good works. There are also many agencies of the Government—national, state or local—giving aid in civic growth and efficiency. It is well to know all the agencies, to study their aims and functions; it is well to utilize their every effort.

FIRST PAPER: By.....

Subject: SOME WHOLESOME CIVIC ORGANIZATIONS.

Civic organizations.
- The chamber of commerce.
  - General plan and organization.
  - The purpose and its functioning in the community.
  - Membership, financing and specific values.
- Rotary, Kiwanis, Civitan, Lions, and similar clubs .
  - General organization and plan of each.
  - Their work.
- Women's Clubs: Federation, League of Women Voters. Community local groups. The purpose and functioning of each.
  - The growth of women's clubs and the scope of their endeavors.

Some volunteer social organizations.
- The Y. M. C. A. and the Y. W. C. A.
- General plan and function. Purposes and endeavors.
- American Red Cross. Purpose, endeavors, and plan of organization.
- Clubs for young folks: Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Demoley societies, and the like.
- The plan and function of each.
- Fraternal orders of all kinds.
- Church and school clubs.
- General community organizations.

SECOND PAPER: By.....

Subject: AGENCIES DIRECTLY AIDING THE CHURCH AND SCHOOL.

The churches of the community and organizations connected with each.
- Denominations represented.
- Members and the work of each.
- Coöperation of the churches for religious life of the town.

Organizations directly aiding the school.
- The parent-teacher association. Its purpose, function, membership, meetings.
- Voluntary agencies formed in local communities with local names.
- The need for such organizations and the work they are doing.

THIRD PAPER: By.....

Subject: THE COMMUNITY COUNCIL PLAN. THE COMMUNITY CHEST IDEA.

The community council plan.
- Its organization and meaning.
- How it has worked elsewhere and what it means to the community.
- The need for concerted action along the line of civic organizations.

The community chest idea.
- General plan of organization.
- The meaning of the community chest idea.
- Financing all civic organizations.
- Club drives and money campaigns.
- Results and illustrations of this plan in other places.

SOME REFERENCES FOR THESE PAPERS:

Attainable Standard in Municipal Programs. University Extension Bulletin. Vol. 1. No. 7. Pages 99, 108 and 17.

Material obtained from the organizations mentioned—State or national offices.

Local clubs and local material.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Discuss the general functioning of like agencies in the community for the purpose of checking or overlapping in efforts.
2. Does the town need any more civic and voluntary organizations?
3. Are all those now in existence functioning properly or are any of them a burden on the town and a drain on the best interests?
4. What organizations are specially interested in the child?
5. Is the community atmosphere wholesome for voluntary organizations?
6. Discuss the general community spirit along this line and test the strength of the organization for community welfare.

FIFTEENTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: **Services to the Rural Community**

The town is largely dependent on the rural community. Everything that the town can do to develop the rural life of its neighborhood returns a hundredfold in town benefits. Then, too, in the spirit of service we should do all we can to bring the conveniences of the town to the farm dweller. The town may offer many services to the rural community. Efforts for the promotion of economic welfare, methods of developing communication and transportation, aiding in the problems of marketing, improving school and social conditions, and many like endeavors are worth while for any club to foster. There should be a centered effort to render service to the rural community.

FIRST PAPER: By.....

Subject: A "COUNTRY SERVING" AS WELL AS "TOWN BUILDING" COMMUNITY.

Some ways in which the town may aid the rural community.

- Economic aid.
  - Providing a ready market for home grown products.
  - Giving credit and making long-term loans.
  - Aiding in marketing crops in other places.
  - Boosting neighborhood products.
- Improving means of communication and transportation.
  - Carrying the telephone line into the country.
  - Sending the electric power into the home of the farm dweller.
  - Aiding in building good roads and fostering their upkeep.
  - The newspaper. magazine, bulletins, etc.
  - Other methods and means.
- The promotion of better organization and coöperation.
  - Establishing community clubs, organizations and gatherings at stated times.
  - Developing coöperation in the economic and social life of the people.

SECOND PAPER: By.....

Subject: THE IMPROVEMENT OF SOCIAL AND EDUCATIONAL CONDITIONS.

General social improvements.
- Growth of community spirit. Banishing the spirit of isolation.
- General growth in health conditions and a growing spirit of the values in social hygiene.
- Modern social trends.

Improvements in educational conditions.
- The compulsory education law and its effect.
- The movement to consolidate rural schools.
- Bringing town school methods into the rural school.
- The school truck—bringing the children to school and carrying them home.
- Raising the quality of teacher and pupil.
- The future outlook for modern trends in rural education.

THIRD PAPER: By.....

Subject: SOME OF THE AGENCIES INTERESTED IN RURAL LIFE DEVELOPMENT.

The many farm organizations and clubs for farmers.
- Names, aims, endeavors, and functions of each.

Local farm demonstration agent and home demonstration agent.
- Their work.

Clubs aiding the farm boy and girl: Canning clubs, pig clubs, corn clubs, and the like.

National agencies aiding the rural community.
- U. S. Department of Agriculture.
- U. S. Bureau of Education.
- National Country Life Association.
- Others.

State agencies aiding the rural community.
- State Department of Agriculture.
- The Highway Commission.
- State Department of Education.
- State Department of Public Welfare.

Volunteer agencies in the field.

SOME REFERENCES FOR THESE PAPERS

Attainable Standards in Municipal Programs. University Extension Bulletin. Vol. 1. No. 7. Pages 97.

Dunn, *The Community and the Citizen.* Chapter XXI.

Douglas, *The Little Town.* Chapter IX.

National department aiding in this work.

State departments.

Volunteer agencies.

SIXTEENTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topics: **Recommendations and Findings**

It is hoped that from this study some genuine community building will emanate. After such study some follow-up work is necessary and some things perhaps have started that should be carried on. It is suggested that a committee be appointed to draw up recommendations and findings that have grown out of this study.

Have the committee make a careful survey of all the studies and account for the work that is going on and things that should be done. Have them make out two types of reports—one for work that is to be continued and followed up at once, and the other a program for town development covering a period of some years.

As this report will be purely of a local nature, it is thought best not to make an outline or give suggestions as to certain recommendations and findings. It is held that through the study the club will find numerous things to recommend and many problems will confront them.

Make this meeting a community affair. It may be best to have a called meeting of the club to consider the recommendations and findings and then to present them in an open community meeting. Such a meeting will give stimulus to other activities and should prove a great aid to the club. Make it a banner occasion in the life of the town.

SOME SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS

First Meeting: General Plan.

A meeting of all club members with the officers of the club leading the program and outlining the plans for the course. It is suggested that the score card be used at this meeting as it forms, in a way, an outline.

Second Meeting: Classification.

A regular club meeting with members leading.

After the program have a round table discussion of the classification and the census.

Third Meeting: Location and Position.

A regular meeting with members leading.

They may be assisted by leaders of the community, and especially those actively engaged in the work of improving the location.

Fourth Meeting: General Administration.

A regular meeting with members leading.

Or, have the leading town official to lecture on this subject and then have a round-table discussion, the members asking questions and thus receiving experienced answers.

Fifth Meeting: Financial Organization and Methods.

A regular club meeting with members leading.

The town treasurer to lecture.

Some State official interested in this subject to talk.

A practical study of existing conditions by first-hand information.

Some outsider to give experience in other towns.

Sixth Meeting: Town Planning.

A regular meeting with members leading.

An expert in town planning to lecture and lead discussion.

Practical meeting in making a town plan.

A study of town planning in relation to the town.

Seventh Meeting: Sanitation and Housing.

A regular meeting with members leading.

City health officials to lead the discussion.

Some officers from the state department of health to lecture.

Practical meeting in the way of an inspection tour of the town.

Organizing the clean-up campaign.

Eighth Meeting: Public Health.

A regular meeting with members leading.

Some official from the local or state health forces to lecture or lead discussion.

A local doctor to speak on the subject.
The health nurse to give a demonstration.
A study of first aid as a meeting program.

NINTH MEETING: Public Welfare.

A regular meeting with members leading.
A county official to lead discussion.
A member of the State department staff to lecture.
Practical illustrations of the work from an experienced worker.

TENTH MEETING: Public Safety.

A regular meeting with members leading.
An official of the fire or police departments to lead discussion.
Demonstration of their work in a practical way.

ELEVENTH MEETING: Public Works and Utilities.

A regular meeting with members leading.
A town official connected with a public utility to lead the discussion.
The official of a privately-owned utiiity to speak.
A follow-up study of public utilities.

TWELFTH MEETING: Public Recreation.

A regular meeting with members leading.
The playground supervisor to lead the discussion.
Practical meeting with play demonstrations.

THIRTEENTH MEETING: Public Education.

A regular meeting with members leading.
Have the teachers lead the discussion.
Some official from the county or State to lecture.
A survey of schools in first hand way.

FOURTEENTH MEETING: Voluntary and Civic Services.

A regular meeting with members leading.
Representatives from the various organizations to speak.
Leaders in this type of work to lead the discussion.
Field representatives of the various agencies to speak.

FIFTEENTH MEETING: Services to the Rural Community.

A regular meeting with members leading.
A coöperative meeting with the leading farmers of the community invited.
Agricultural leaders to lecture.

SIXTEENTH MEETING: Recommendations and Findings.

A regular meeting with members leading.
An open community meeting with representatives of the club presenting these recommendations and findings to the town.

TOWN STUDIES

Questions of General Interest

1. Can you find out how the site of your community happened to be selected?

2. From what localities did the early settlers in your community come?

3. Why did they come?

4. What are the chief natural resources of the region in which your community is situated?

5. Are there any natural features that divide your community into districts or regions?

6. Are there many people in your community without homes? Why? What is being done or can be done to remedy the situation?

7. Do most of the people in the community own their homes or do they rent them?

8. What is being done in your community to improve the living conditions of the poorer class?

9. Are flats and apartments being erected? Why? What are some of the effects of this type of building on family life?

10. Has your community a board of health? How many members? How are they chosen? What are some of their important duties?

11. What officers are employed by the town for the protection of health? Give a report of their work.

12. Is the sewage system used by the town safe to health?

13. What is the cost to the family for disposing of the sewage? Is the system efficient?

14. How are the streets cleaned? What is the cost? Who manages this?

15. What is the town plan for collecting and disposing of garbage?

16. How does the town obtain its water supply? Are wells used? Examine the sources of water supply.

17. Have there been any epidemics in the community of late? What was the cause and what is being done to prevent further epidemics?

18. What is being done in the community to secure pure food?

19. Is the milk supply pure? Is there an examination and testing of milk and dairies.

20. What are the conditions under which meat is slaughtered in or near the city?

21. Are the meat markets sanitary? Clean? Well-screened? Cool?

22. Are the grocery stores inviting and clean in every way?

23. Is the ice cream used by the community made in sanitary surroundings? Is it of pure milk?

24. Are all public eating places subjected to license and inspection?

25. Are bakery shops kept clean? Free from flies? Loaves protected from handling?

26. Are all public buildings kept in sanitary condition?

27. Is there proper ventilation to all public buildings?

28. Are all vacant lots free from weeds, trash and filth?

29. What provisions are made for notification as to contagious diseases?

30. Are common towels permitted in public wash rooms, hotels, and theaters?

31. Are public drinking cups permitted?

32. Has the town a hospital? Is it adequate for its needs?

33. Are vital statistics kept—i. e., births, deaths, marriage records, contagious and infectious diseases?

34. What is the park system for the town? How are they managed? What amount of play space is there?

35. What are the playground activities?

36. Is the school building properly heated, lighted, and ventilated?

37. Is there medical inspection of school children?

38. What are some of the ordinances in the community for the protection of health?

39. Are they kept or regularly violated?

40. Are there any volunteer health agencies at work in the community?

41. What are the means of fighting fire?

42. Is the water supply adequate to meet any fire emergency?

43. Are there any building regulations regarding fire?

44. What is the organization of the police force?

45. How many policemen are there on the city force? What are their duties?

46. Are the streets properly lighted at nights? What is the method of street lighting? Is it efficient?

47. Investigate the subject of violation of traffic regulations and laws?

48. Has the town any form of organized militia?

49. What is the leading business of the town? Name some of the outstanding business endeavors of the town?

50. Are there any new forms of business that should be brought into the community? What are some of the needs along this line?

51. Are there any ordinances respecting blocking of streets and roads?

52. Has the town a street railway? Who owns it? What is its general condition and how does it serve the community?

53. Has the town a mail delivery? If not, why not?

54. Is the town paper a community booster? How is the paper organized? Who owns it? What seems to be its chief aim?

55. What are some of the ways of civic waste?

56. How may these leaks and wastes be prevented?

57. What is the attitude toward bird life, fish, game, etc?

58. Describe the organization of the school in your township.

59. What are some of the qualifications prescribed for teachers in the community? How are they selected?

60. What do the public schools cost your city each year? The county? The State?

61. Compare the school community of which you are a member with the community outside the school.

62. Are the compulsory laws of the state carried out in your town?

63. Make a list of educational forces in your community outside the public school?

64. Is the school house being used as a community center?

65. What are the religious denominations represented in the town?

66. Do the people of the town take an active part in church and Sunday school work?

67. Are there many people of the town outside the church?

68. What is the general religious tendency of the young people in the community?

69. Has any natural scenery been destroyed by growth of the town?

70. Is anything done to prevent the unnecessary destruction of natural beauty?

71. Is there a real interest in caring for premises of homes?

72. Are the public buildings and grounds beautified?

73. Are the streets beautified in any way?

74. Are there any unnecessary noises in the community? How may these be lessened?

75. Study the types of trees in the town. Plant new trees from time to time.

76. Are the streets full of advertisements? Are these sign boards in places that make the town unsightly?

77. Is there any concerted action to cultivate a taste for beautifying the town?

78. What institutions are there for the care of defective persons?

79. Are there any charity organizations in the town? What are they doing? Are all of them functioning? Is there any overlapping of effort?

80. Has the town a community council? Are funds obtained by the community chest idea?

81. Is there much crime in the community?

82. What is the extent of juvenile delinquency?

83. What is the general organization of the town government?

84. Name the officers. State their main duties. How are they elected?

85. Give some of the outstanding ordinances of the town?

86. What are the qualifications for suffrage?

87. Are the women taking any active part in political matters of the town?

88. Describe how an election is carried on in your community.

89. What are the courts employed in your community to administer justice?

90. Make a list of the administrative departments of the town.

91. What is the town's birth rate? What is the death rate?

92. Is there a high rate of infant mortality in the town? Why?

93. Is the town burial grounds cared for by the town or by individuals?

94. Is there any child labor in the town? Give its condition.

95. How many children between the ages of six and fourteen are not in school? What are they doing?

96. Is there a town plan for future development?

97. If not, would it not be a good thing to begin one?

98. Has your club considered any future work for town development?

99. What are some of the ideals set for the town by the club?

100. Is it not the duty of all citizens to work together for the best interest of the town now and in the future? Are you going to do this? Will you be a real community builder?

ADDITIONAL SUGGESTIONS

Campaign for interest in suffrage and proper voting.
Making a town plan and carrying it out.
The clean-up campaign.
Health demonstration or physical examination of school children.
Aiding welfare work in an active way.
Policeman and fireman parade and festival day.
Community picnic with athletics as a feature.
School day.
Other plans and features.

GENERAL REFERENCES

The references listed below are in the form of books relating to the study. It is thought that many clubs would like to purchase some or all of these books for library and reference use. It is hoped that the study will be followed up by other more intensive studies along town development lines. These books may be purchased direct from the publishers, or the University Extension Division will make the purchase for you.

BRADFORD—Commission Government in American Cities—The Macmillan Co., N. Y. C.

CLARKE—The Little Democracy—D. Appleton and Co., N. Y. C.

COOKE—Our Cities Awake—Doubleday, Page and Co., Garden City. N. Y.

DENNING—Government of American Cities—G. P. Putnam's Sons, N. Y. C.

EATON—The Government of Municipalities—The Macmillan Co., N. Y. C.

DOUGLAS—The Little Town—The Macmillan Co., N. Y. C.

FASSETT—Handbook of Municipal Government—Thomas Y. Crowell Co., N. Y. C.

FITZPATRICK—Experts in City Government—D. Appleton and Co., N. Y. C.

GILBERT—American Cities—The Macmillan Co., N. Y. C.

GOODNOW—Municipal Government—The Century Co., N. Y. C.

HOWE—The City—Charles Scribner's Sons, N. Y. C.

MUNO—The Government of American Cities—The Macmillan Co., N. Y. C.

MUNO—Principles and Methods of Municipal Administration—The Macmillan Co., N. Y. C.

JAMES—Municipal Functions—D. Appleton and Co., N. Y. C.

JAMES—Local Government in the United States—D. Appleton and Co., N. Y. C.

DUNN—The Community and the Citizen—D. C. Heath and Co., Boston, Mass.

ZEIGLER AND JACQUETTE—Our Community—The John C. Winston Co., Philadelphia, Pa.

TAYLOR—Satellite Cities—D. Appleton and Co., N. Y. C.

TOULMIN—The City Manager—D. Appleton and Co., N. Y. C.

WILCOX—Great Cities in America—The Macmillan Co.. N. Y. C.

WILSON—Community Leadership—The American City Bureau, N. Y. C.

WOODRUFF—City Government by Commission—D. Appleton and Co., N. Y. C.

ZUEBLIN—American Municipal Progress—The Macmillan Co., N. Y. C.

CAPES—The Modern City and Its Government—E. P. Dutton and Co., N. Y. C.

EVANS—Town Improvement—D. Appleton and Co., N. Y. C.

NOLEN—City Planning—D. Appleton and Co., N. Y. C.

JAMES—Handbook of Civic Improvement—University of Texas, Austin, Texas.

BENNION—Citizenship—World Book Co., Yonkers, N. Y.

COUNTY GOVERNMENT AND COUNTY AFFAIRS IN NORTH CAROLINA—University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N. C.

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO TOWN AFFAIRS

(One copy of each free to all clubs that register for the program on TOWN STUDIES.)

Attainable Standards in Municipal Programs. Edited by H. W. Odum. Price .60.

The Parent-Teacher Association. Harold D. Meyer. Price .50.

Sanitation in the South. Thorndike Saville. Price .10.

Constructive Ventures in Government. H. W. Odum. Price .50.

The North Carolina Club Year-Book—*Wealth and Welfare in North Carolina.* Price .25.

Plays for Amateurs. F. H. Koch. Price .50.

N. C. Club Year-Book—*State Reconstruction Studies.* Price .75.

Design and Improvement of School Grounds. W. C. Coker. Price .75.

Play Production for Amateurs. F. H. Koch. Price .50.

The Rural Playground. Harold D. Meyer. Price .25.

PERIODICAL PUBLICATIONS ON MUNICIPAL AFFAIRS

Journal of Social Forces—(Department of Town and City Programs), University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, N. C.

The American City. New York City.

The Playground. New York City.

Efficient Citizenship, Bureau of Municipal Research, General Periodicals. New York City.

Municipal Research, Bureau of Municipal Research, Philadelphia, Pa.

National Municipal Review, National Municipal League, 260 Broadway, New York City.

Zoning, American Civic Association, Union Trust Building, Washington, D. C.

A Zoning Primer, Department of Commerce, Washington, D. C.

Town and City Beautiful, University Extension Division, Bloomington, Indiana.

TERMS FOR THE COURSE

The registration fee for the program, TOWN STUDIES, is $5.00. The fee entitles each club to ten copies of the program, the loan for a year of two of the most important reference books, Dunn's "Community and the Citizen," and Evans, "Town Improvement," as well as the loan for two weeks of other reference books, and the use of one copy of each of the Extension publications relating to town affairs, listed on page 54.

Additional copies of the program will be 50c each; additional copies of Dunn's "Community and the Citizen" will be $1.24, and Evan's "Town Improvement," $2.75.

THE LOAN OF BOOKS

Books and other material for this course will be loaned by the Extension Division upon the following terms: The club must first register and pay the required fee.

The secretary should order the books at least two weeks before they are to be used. Requests for books by return mail will be attended to, but no guarantee is made that they will reach their destination in time to be of use.

Books and other material must be returned in two weeks from the date they are issued, which is stamped on the book pocket on the first page of the book. The club is subject to a fine of five cents a day on each package of books kept over two weeks. Upon request, the time on books will be extended one week.

Transportation charges both ways are borne by the club.

Address all correspondence concerning this program to:

Women's Club Section,
Bureau of Public Discussion,
University Extension Division,
Chapel Hill, N. C.

CLUB MEETINGS

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA RECORD
EXTENSION SERIES

Upon application the following numbers will be sent you for the price listed:

8. Coöperative Institutions Among the Farmers of Catawba County. Price 25c.
9. Syllabus of Home-County Club Studies. Price 25c.
12. The Teaching of County Geography. Price 25c.
21. Measurement of Achievement in the Fundamental Elementary School Subjects. Price 25c.
22. Public Discussion and Debate. (Revised.) Price 25c.
23. The North Carolina Club Year-Book—Wealth and Welfare in North Carolina. Price 25c.
25. Local Study Clubs. Price 25c.
27. Standard Educational Tests and Measurements as a Basis for a Co-operative Plan. Price 25c.
29. Comparative Results of a State-wide Use of Standard Tests and Measurements. Price 25c.
30. The North Carolina Club Year-Book—County Government and County Affairs in North Carolina. Cloth. Price $1.25.
31. Compulsory Military Training. Price 25c.
32. A Study of the Public School in Orange County, North Carolina. Price 25c.
33. The State and County Council. Price 25c.
36. Plays for Amateurs. Price 50c.
37. Further Use of Standard Tests and Scales as a Basis for a Coöperative Research Plan. Price 25c.
38. The Construction of Schoolhouses. Price 50c.
39. The Teaching of Geometry. Price 50c.
40. Collective Bargaining. Price 50c.
41. N. C. Club Year Book—State Reconstruction Studies. Price 75c.

1. (Special Series.) Design and Improvement of School Grounds. Price 75c.

MONEY ORDER, CHECK OR STAMPS ACCEPTED

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA EXTENSION BULLETIN

Published twice a month, September, October, November, December, and once a month, January, February, March, April, May, June.

Succeeding and combining UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA EXTENSION LEAFLETS, Volumes I-IV, and THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA RECORD, EXTENSION SERIES 1-41.

Vol. II, No. 5 November 1, 1922

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION

University of North Carolina Extension Bulletin

THE ENFORCEMENT OF RAILROAD LABOR BOARD DECISIONS

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA PRESS
Entered as second-class matter
Chapel Hill, N. C.

EXTENSION LEAFLETS

FOLLOWING IS A LIST OF EXTENSION LEAFLETS WHICH WILL BE SENT YOU UPON APPLICATION EITHER FREE OR FOR THE PRICE LISTED:

Vol. I, No. 10. *Selections for Speaking in the Public Schools. I: Lee, Lincoln and Washington Anniversaries.* Price 10c.

Vol. I, No. 12. *American Ideals in American Literature—A Syllabus.* Price 10c.

Vol. I, No. 14. *National Ideals in British and American Literature.* Price 50c.

Vol. I, No. 16. *The Community Pageant. An Agency for the Promotion of Democracy.* Price 10c.

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Vol. III, No. 8. *The Consolidation of Rural Schools.* Price 25c.

Vol. III, Nos. 9 & 10. *Development of Farm Water Power, Country Home Comforts and Conveniences.* Series No. I, Part III. Free.

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Vol. IV, No. 9. *High School Athletic Contests.* Free.

Vol. IV, No. 10. *A Study Course in American Literature.* For Women's Clubs. Price 50c.

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CHAPEL HILL, N. C.

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA EXTENSION BULLETIN

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UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA EXTENSION BULLETIN

THE ENFORCEMENT OF RAILROAD LABOR BOARD DECISIONS

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The High School Debating Union

History and Purpose

The High School Debating Union was organized among the secondary and high schools of North Carolina by the Dialectic and Philanthropic Literary Societies of the University during the school year 1912-13. It was organized to encourage debating in a definite, systematic fashion among North Carolina high school students. The query of that year was, RESOLVED, *That the Constitution of North Carolina should be so amended as to allow women to vote under the same qualifications as men.* Ninety schools took part in the State-wide debate on February 22, 1913. Sixteen schools won both debates and sent their teams to Chapel Hill for the final contest. The Pleasant Garden High School of Guilford County, represented by Messrs. Grady Bowman and S. C. Hodgin, on the affirmative side, was the winner in the final contest, on March 7, 1913, and accordingly was awarded the Aycock Memorial Cup.

A Part of Extension Work

During the school year of 1913-14 the High School Debating Union moved onward with splendid success. It received the additional support of the University Extension Division, in order to insure its permanence and enlarge its usefulness and scope. Everywhere, all over the State, it was recognized as a definite, big part of the University's effort to bring itself into a helpful relation with every community and every person in North Carolina. One hundred and fifty schools enrolled in the Union and took part in the triangular debates on March 20, 1914. Forty-one schools won both of their debates and sent their teams, numbering 164 debaters, to Chapel Hill to compete in the final contest. Before an audience of 2,000 in Memorial Hall, on April 3, 1914, the Winston-Salem High School, represented by Messrs. Charles Roddick and Clifton Eaton, on the negative side, won the final contest and was awarded the Aycock Memorial Cup. The query was, RESOLVED, *That the Constitution of North Carolina should be so amended as to allow the Initiative and Referendum in State-wide legislation.*

The Contest of 1914-1915

The contest of 1914-15 was the most successful which had yet been held. Two hundred and fifty schools in 90 counties became members of the Union. Representing them, 1,000 student-debaters spoke, March 26, before large audiences in cities towns, and rural communities all

over North Carolina, on the query, RESOLVED, *That the United States should adopt the policy of subsidizing its Merchant Marine engaged in foreign trade.* Fifty schools won both debates and sent their teams to Chapel Hill to compete in the final contest. Before another splendid audience in Memorial Hall, on April 9, 1915, the Wilson High School, represented by Misses Lalla Rookh Fleming and Ethel Gardner, on the negative side, won and was awarded the Aycock Memorial Cup.

The Contest of 1915-1916

Three hundred and twenty-five schools represented by 1,300 debaters enrolled in the Union during the fall of 1915 for a great State-wide debate, March 31, 1916, on the query, RESOLVED, *That the United States should adopt the policy of greatly enlarging its Navy.* Sixty-eight schools won both debates and sent their teams to Chapel Hill to compete in the final contest. The Aycock Memorial Cup was won, on April 14, 1916, by Miss Myrtle Cooper and Boyd Harden, speakers on the affirmative for the Graham High School. Five hundred visitors came to Chapel Hill for the final contest of the High School Debating Union and the other features of High School Week.

The Contest of 1916-1917

The query which was discussed in the fifth annual contest of the High School Debating Union was, RESOLVED, *That the Federal Government should own and operate the railways.* The State-wide contest on March 31, 1917, was participated in by 1,324 student-debaters, representing 331 schools. Seventy-four schools won both debates and sent their representatives to Chapel Hill to compete in the final contest. Messrs. Vinson Smathers and Roy Francis, affirmative speakers of the Waynesville High School, were victorious from the total number of 296 debaters present, and were awarded the Aycock Memorial Cup, the final debate being held in Memorial Hall on April 20, 1917, before an audience which taxed to the utmost the hall's capacity. The number of visitors coming to the University for the exercises of High School Week was six hundred.

The Contest of 1917-1918

The sixth contest centered around the query, RESOLVED, *That Congress should enact a law providing for the compulsory arbitration of industrial disputes.* The finals were held at Chapel Hill on April 11 and 12, 1918, when 66 teams with 246 debaters participated. This was probably one of the most spirited and hotly contested debates ever held on the Hill. From first to last the good sportsmanship of every one was a matter of most favorable comment. Thomas Burton and Will Anderson, representing the Wilson High School, on the negative side, won the decision and carried the Aycock Memorial Cup back to Wilson for the second time, Wilson having won the 1915 contest.

The Contest of 1918-1919

The query which was discussed in the seventh annual contest of the High School Debating Union was, RESOLVED, *That the United States Government should adopt a policy requiring one year of military training of all able-bodied men before they reach the age of* 21. One hundred and eighty schools in seventy-five counties took part in the State-wide discussion of this subject on April 4, 1919. Forty-one schools won both of their debates and sent their teams, numbering 164 debaters, to the University to participate in the final contest for the Aycock Memorial Cup. Miss Aura Holton and Leo Brady, representing the Durham High School, on the negative side, were successful in winning the award of the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate held in Memorial Hall on May 2, 1919.

The Contest of 1919-1920

Two hundred high schools participated in the eighth annual contest of the High School Debating Union. The query was, RESOLVED, *That the United States should adopt a policy of further material restriction of immigration.* Forty-four high schools won both debates and sent their teams, numbering 176 debaters, to the University to participate in the final contest for the Aycock Memorial Cup. Arthur Kale and Clifton Ervin, of the Asheville High School, representing the affirmative side of the query, won the award of the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate held in Memorial Hall on April 23, 1920.

The Contest of 1920-1921

Two hundred high schools took part in the ninth annual contest of the High School Debating Union. The query was, RESOLVED, *That the policy of collective bargaining through trade unions should prevail in American industry.* Fifty schools won both debates and sent their teams, numbering two hundred debaters, to the University for the finals. Ludlow Rogers and Miss Eunice Hutchins, of the Durham High School, representing the negative side of the query, won the award of the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate held in Memorial Hall on April 15, 1921.

The Contest of 1921-1922

The query discussed by the two hundred and fifty high schools taking part in the tenth annual contest of the High School Debating Union was, RESOLVED, *That the United States should enter the League of Nations.* Sixty schools won both of their triangular debates and sent their teams, numbering 240 debaters, to the University to compete in the final contest for the Aycock Memorial Cup. Linwood Hollowell and Freeman Twaddell, of the Durham High School, representing the

negative side of the query, won the award of the Aycock Memorial Cup in the final debate held in Memorial Hall on April 7, 1922. Since the Durham High School was victorious in the final debates both in 1921 and 1922, this school came into permanent possession of the first Aycock Memorial Cup, the trophy given to the High School Debating Union in 1913 by the inter-collegiate debaters of the University of North Carolina.

The Query for 1922-1923

The query which will be discussed this year by the schools having membership in the High School Debating Union is, RESOLVED, *That Congress should provide for the enforcement of decisions of the Railroad Labor Board.* The strike of railway shopmen during the past summer months served to focus the attention of the American people on the relations existing between capital and labor on the railways of the country. A study of this general problem brings about the question: should capital and labor be compelled by Congressional enactment to abide by the decision of the Railroad Labor Board? It is of great importance to all citizens that this question be answered rightly. The committee trusts that it may be of considerable profit to the debaters and high school students and to the citizens of the State, generally, to have a State-wide discussion of the query which has been chosen.

Regulations

1. The Dialectic and Philanthropic Literary Societies and the University Extension Division of the University of North Carolina will suggest a query, to be discussed on a given date by the schools entering the Union.

2. All secondary schools of North Carolina, however supported, offering regularly organized courses of study above the seventh grade, and not extending in their scope and content beyond a standard high school or secondary school course, shall be eligible for membership in the High School Debating Union.

3. Schools accepting this offer and thus becoming members of the Union shall be arranged into groups of three for a triangular debate, the status and standards of the schools, their proximity, accessibility, and convenience of location to be considered in forming the groups.

4. Each school of each triangular group shall agree to furnish two debating teams of two members each, the one to uphold the affirmative side of the query, and the other to defend the negative side.

5. The members of the debating teams must all be bona fide students of the schools they represent. To be bona fide students, they must be in regular attendance at the time of the debate, and they must have been in regular attendance for at least 30 per cent of the school year up to and including the date of the debate, and must

have made passing grades on a majority of the studies in some regularly organized course of study.

6. The team debating at home shall in each case uphold the affirmative side of the query, and the visiting team the negative.

7. The schools themselves shall select and agree upon the judges of the local contest.

8. Each speaker shall have twenty minutes at his disposal, not more than fifteen of which shall be used in the first speech.

9. Any school which shall win both of its debates shall be entitled to send both of its teams to the University for the State championship contest. *Provided*, that the committee may, with the approval of the schools, arrange for a second triangular contest between the winning schools throughout the State prior to the final contest at the University, should this plan appear to be a wise one. In this case, only those schools whose teams should win both debates in the second contest would be entitled to representation at Chapel Hill.

10. In the event that one school of a triangle drops out and the committee at Chapel Hill is unable to secure a school to take its place, then the two teams remaining shall debate one another, each sending a team on the negative to the other.

11. In the event that two schools of a triangle drop out of the Union and the committee is unable to secure schools to take their places, then the remaining school shall be declared the winner over the others, by their default.

12. The school having the strongest team on the affirmative side of the query and the school having the strongest team on the negative side shall be entitled to contest publicly in Memorial Hall at the University for the Aycock Memorial Cup. (The strongest team on each side of the query is to be determined by means of preliminary contests in debate at Chapel Hill.)

13. The school which shall win the debate, thus finally held, shall have its name inscribed on the Aycock Memorial Cup, together with the names of its two winning representatives.

14. Any school which shall win in the final contest for two years in succession shall have the cup for its own property.

15. All high school representatives and principals coming to the University for this contest will be entertained free of cost for two days at Chapel Hill.

16. All contestants are expected to prepare their own speeches with legitimate assistance of the teachers, principals, or superintendents in their school systems. Legitimate assistance is interpreted to mean oral advice, suggestions, discussions, and criticism.

Suggestions as to Judges

1. The judges should be disinterested parties to the success of either team, and, so far as possible, should be non-local.

2. They should sit apart during the debate.

3. They should judge the contest as a debate, and at its conclusion without consultation should vote "Affirmative" or "Negative" on the merits of the debate. They should not consider the merits of the question.

4. Each judge should sign and seal his vote and deliver it, through an usher, to the presiding officer who should publicly open the votes and announce the decision.

5. Before the debate begins a copy of these suggestions should be given to each judge for his guidance.

Originality of Debates

The High School Conference in session at Chapel Hill during the summer of 1916 recommended, "that the principals of the schools in the various triangles be urged to take some steps among themselves looking toward the originality of the debates." The committee realizes that "the debate which a speaker produces should be his very best; but it should under no circumstances be better than his best"; that the success of the Union will be seriously hindered unless in each instance the speech of a debater represents his own individual work. It wishes, therefore, to ask the principals to give this matter their very careful consideration and to note particularly Regulation No. 16. In cases where necessary, the principals in the various triangles should take such action among themselves as they deem necessary.

For further information, address

E. R. RANKIN, *Secretary*,
HIGH SCHOOL DEBATING UNION,
Chapel Hill, N. C.

The Enforcement of Railroad Labor Board Decisions

Query

RESOLVED, *That Congress should provide for the enforcement of decisions of the Ralroad Labor Board.*

Explanations and Limitations

For the purpose of uniformity and definiteness of issue in the debates of the High Shool Debating Union, the following explanations and limitations of the query are expressly laid dowu:

It is understood that any question of the constitutionality of a legal measure making provision for the enforcement of decisions of the Railroad Labor Board is to be waived from the discussions.

It is understood that peualties for violation of Railroad Labor Board decisions would include in the judgment of the court for the leaders of the employers and for the leaders of the employees and, in the last analysis, for the individual employers and the individual employees, fine or imprisonment or both, such fine not to exceed one thousand dollars for each violation and such imprisonment not to extend beyond sixty days for each violation.

It is understood that the statement of the query, as given above, contemplates in the future, close relationship and close co-operatiou between the Inter-State Commerce Commission, the government rate-making body, and the Railroad Labor Board, the government wage-fixing body.

It is understood that the statement of the query as given above does not contemplate that the right of the individual railway manager to employ and discharge as he chooses shall be abridged, or that the right of the individual employee to change his employment when he chooses shall be abridged, except that the manager for his part shall not engage in lockouts and the employee for his part shall not engage in concerted walkouts, or strikes.

The Enforcement of Railroad Labor Board Decisions

Brief

RESOLVED. *That Congress should provide for the enforcement of decisions of the Railroad Labor Board.*

Introduction

I. The question is one of great importance.

A. Nothing else so vitally affects the average man, woman, or child, as does a strike or lockout on the railway systems of the country. Efficient railway transportation is essential to a well-ordered, progressive nation.

II. The present is an opportune time for its discussion.

A. The threatened nation-wide railway strike of September, 1916, the passage of the Adamson eight-hour work-day law, the threatened railway strike of 1921, and the national strike of railway shopmen in the summer of 1922 are among the elements which give special significance to the problem of the relation between railway employers and employees at the present time.

III. While Congress has created by statute the Railroad Labor Board, whose function it is to hear disputes between the railways and their employees and to render decisions, still no power has been granted for the enforcement of the decisions made, and the question now arises as to whether Congress should provide for enforcement of the decisions of the Railroad Labor Board.

AFFIRMATIVE

I. Present conditions existing between railway employers and employees in the United States demand a remedy.

A. The life and health and continued progress of the people of the United States as a foremost civilized nation depend absolutely on continuous railway service. A general breakdown in railway transportation by reason of a strike or lockout would be the most overwhelming calamity which could befall the nation.

B. There is at the present time no insurance against strikes and lockouts on the railways. The Railroad Labor Board, while called upon by Congressional statute to hear disputes and render decisions affecting wages and working conditions on the railways, has no power to enforce its decisions.

C. The strike of railway shopmen alone during the summer of 1922 caused the general public untold hardship and was a most dangerous menace to the freedom of American institutions and the life of the country.

II. The plan proposed is right in principle and is in harmony with the spirit of American democracy.

A. The right of the public is paramount to the rights of the participants in any railway strike or lockout.

1. Railways are quasi-public in nature. They are public necessities and as such have been granted certain special privileges by the government, as the right of eminent domain. For that matter, the privilege of engaging in any of the various forms of industry is granted by charter from the body politic or the State.

2. Through higher rates or poorer service, or both, through hardship and suffering, the general public is always the chief loser by reason of strikes and lockouts on the railways.

B. It is the duty of the government to provide for the promotion of peace and public welfare throughout the nation.

1. The primary purpose of government and all public authority is the promotion of peace and public welfare. (Garner: *Introduction to Political Science.*)

2. It is the business of law in every department of life to see that reasonable expectation is fulfilled: the reasonable expectation of the employee that the conditions under which he makes out his scheme of life will have some permanence; the reasonable expectation of the employer that the conditions under which he contracts will have some degree of permanence; the reasonable expectation of the general public that it will not have to suffer privation and hardship needlessly and uselessly.

C. This plan embodies the ideas and principles of law and order as opposed to the use of force and violence.

1. Strikes and lockouts, which mean industrial warfare, are outworn weapons, vastly expensive, archaic, wasteful and unsatisfactory. They always leave bitterness and a desire for revenge in their wake.

2. The argument that individual liberty would be interfered with and slavery established through this plan is unsound.
   a. On every hand the individual is compelled to surrender his liberty for the good of society.
   b. No man can operate his business as he pleases. He is restricted by sanitary laws, building laws, child labor laws and in numerous other ways.
3. Objections against this plan might be urged with equal force against our whole judicial system.
   a. Men are forced to settle their disputes in civil matters in law courts.
   b. The court enforces the performance of contracts.
   c. The court decides on occasion whether the man or wife shall have custody over children.

III. The plan proposed would remedy the evils existing and is practicable.

A. Strikes and lockouts, with their inevitable consequences of violence and mob rule, would thereby be eliminated.

B. Employers, employees and the general public would thereby be greatly aided.
   1. Railway managers could proceed without the fear of a strike or of being compelled to pay unreasonable wages.
   2. Railway employees would be freed from the losses and hardships of strikes and lockouts and would have adequate legal safeguards as to their wages.
   3. The general public would be guaranteed public peace and continuous service, both of which are essential to the welfare of the nation.

C. Public sentiment would be behind compulsory acceptance of decisions of the Railroad Labor Board, and enforcement would not be difficult.
   1. The great body of the American people are law abiding, and with compulsory features added to the Transportation Act, railway employers and employees would at once abide by the decisions made, as they abide by other provisions of the laws of the country. The intervention of the marshal would be necessary only rarely if at all.
   2. Provision could be made for the enforcement of the decisions by fine or imprisonment or both.

D. Unjust awards would not be made. The Railroad Labor Board gives most careful consideration to its decisions and bases its decisions on solid grounds. There is always available to all parties an appeal for rehearing.

IV. Industrial arbitration courts with compulsory features attached have proved successful where they have been tried.

A. The system has been successful in New Zealand.

1. No important strike or lockout has occurred since the compulsory arbitration act went into effect in 1894.

2. Capital and labor have been on better terms, and the condition of working people has been improved.

B. The industrial courts have solved industrial problems in Australia.

1. Chief Justice Higgins of the Commonwealth arbitration court asserts that the system has been a success in Australia and that the arbitration system of Australia helps rather than hinders labor organizations.

C. The Kansas system of industrial courts has been successful in quelling industrial disturbances in Kansas.

D. Similar systems to that proposed have proved successful in Italy, Norway, and many other countries.

V. Solely as a matter of self-preservation for the people of the United States and for their great free institutions, Congress should take action at once for insuring that the life-giving channels of railway transportation shall be kept open at all times, by making adequate provision for enforcing the decisions of the Railroad Labor Board.

NEGATIVE

I. It is unnecessary and highly undesirable that Congress should provide for the enforcement of decisions of the Railroad Labor Board.

A. Never in our history has there been a general strike among railway workers in the United States.

B. The plan proposed is bitterly opposed by railway employers and employees and is not upheld by public opinion.

1. The employers feel that they can best manage their labor problems independently.

2. Organized labor has always been opposed to compulsory acceptance of Labor Board decisions on the basis that slavery conditions would be brought about thereby.

3. There has been no dependable expression of public opinion in favor of the plan proposed. *The Saturday Evening Post* says editorially: "The country would best think twice before it responds to the growing demands to put more teeth into labor boards." *The New York Times* says editorially: "The difficulties created by the strike are not sufficient reasons for recasting the Transportation Act. There is no other and no better sanction for the Transportation Act than public opinion."

C. Strikes are not a sufficient necessity for the adoption of so radical a departure as the plan proposed. To follow out the plan would be to bestow far too great power on the nine members of the Railroad Labor Board.

II. The plan proposed is wrong in theory and is not in harmony with the ideals of American democracy.

A. It would destroy freedom of contract, the individual liberty of employer and employee, and would bring on involuntary servitude, slavery, which is abhorrent to our great civilization, and which is never justifiable.

1. Men would be forced to work against their will, and employers would be forced to employ others against their will.

B. It would hinder economic progress, working injustice to employer and employee, and governing industry by artificial and not by natural laws.

1. Through higher rates, or poorer service, or both, it would increase the cost of operation and would drive capital away from railway securities.
2. It would weaken labor unions on railways and would destroy their usefulness.
3. It would encourage increased disrespect for law.

C. It would violate the principles of democracy.

1. Democracy teaches that every man can attend to his own business better than some one else can attend to it for him.
2. The public has no right to interfere with private business.

D. The argument that railway managers and employees should be compelled to settle their disputes in court just as individuals settle their civil suits is unsound.

1. Civil suits always have to do with the exchange of commodities, or values.
2. Labor cannot be conceived of as a commodity.

III. Any plan for enforcing the decisions of the Railroad Labor Board is impracticable and would be harmful in operation.

A. It is too great an experiment. Anglo-Saxon institutions are always a gradual growth; an evolution, not a revolution.

B. In actual practice, the decisions of the Railroad Labor Board could not be enforced on employees or their sympathizers.

1. In the event of a strike it would be clearly impossible to jail the million or more railway workers of the country.
2. The Railroad Labor Board could not compel the railway workers to continue at work or to return to work. In addition, involuntary servitude would not be tolerated in this country.

3. Substitute highly skilled labor could not be found to operate the railways, even if striking employees should be placed in hastily improvised, wired-in cantonments.

C. The plan would not eliminate the possibility of strikes or lockouts.

1. It would be impossible to compel by legislation one set of men to work for the profit or convenience of another set of men.

IV. The results obtained from the workings of boards with similar powers to those proposed here have not been such as to warrant the adoption of such a plan in the United States.

A. Strikes have occurred both in Australia and New Zealand since the compulsory arbitration law went into effect in those countries.

1. The courts have been unable to enforce their awards.

2. Ill feeling between capital and labor has been increased.

3. The system has been abandoned in West Australia.

B. Any plan similar to this is untried in England and virtually untried in France.

C. The Canadian plan does not provide for involuntary servitude as does this plan.

D. Even if compulsory arbitration were somewhat successful in the antipodes, that fact would prove nothing for the United States.

1. New Zealand has a total of around one million people and is somewhat smaller than Colorado.

2. New Zealand has no modern industry.

3. Conditions are the same throughout the two small islands of New Zealand, but they are vastly different in the different sections of the United States.

4. Non-interference with personal liberty has always been the American principle, while New Zealand and Australia have been the lands of government-owned railroads, telegraphs, telephones, gas plants, electric power plants, insurance companies, mines and factories.

E. European countries which have adopted similar compulsory systems are likewise countries holding greatly different ideas and principles from those of the United States. The principle of non-interference of personal liberty has not held sway with them as it has with the United States.

F. The Kansas system of industrial courts does not give encouragement to those favoring the enforcement of Railroad Labor Board decisions.

1. In Kansas grievous infringement of personal liberty has taken place and industrial warfare has not been avoided.

V. The United States has achieved her pre-eminent rank among the enlightened nations of the world by placing as the mud-sill of her national structure, individual liberty and freedom of contract. For Congress to destroy this freedom of contract by providing for involuntary servitude on the part of the railway employees of the country would be for Congress to begin a policy which, when carried to completion, would mean the ruin of the country and which is, therefore, unthinkable.

General References

ANALYSIS OF LABOR PROVISIONS OF THE NEW TRANSPORTATION ACT

(From the *Monthly Labor Review*, April, 1920.)

The new railroad control act passed by Congress and signed by the President, February 28, 1920, differs from previous railroad legislation principally in its inclusion of significant and extended provisions for the adjustment of industrial relations in the railroad service. Previous railroad legislation had proceeded along two distinct lines. There was first a separate body of legislation affecting the finances and operations of the carriers; and a second series of laws regulating the relations of employer and employee. In the first group of laws belong, for instance, the interstate commerce act of 1887, the Elkins Act of 1903, the Hepburn amendment of 1906, the Carmack amendment of the same year, the Mann-Elkins amendment of 1910, the Panama Canal Act of 1912, and the two general laws on combinations and trusts—the Sherman Act of 1890, and the Clayton Act of 1914. The second group of laws has comprised the employers' liability act, 1908, the safety appliance act of 1893 and subsequent years, the mediation laws—Erdman, 1898, and Newlands, 1913—and finally the Adamson 8-hour law, September 3-5, 1916.

Following this came the war legislation, the chief feature of which has been the recognition extended to labor in the determination of labor conditions and regulations and in the adjustment of industrial relations.

Under the act of August 29, 1917, the President was authorized to take possession and assume control of the transportation systems of the country and to use them for such purposes as were connected with the prosecution of the war. The proclamation for the assumption of control was issued December 26, 1917. Subsequently, through the Federal control act, March 21, 1918, control by Executive order was replaced by control defined and limited under provisions of law. This Federal control act provided for Government operation of the railroads during the period of the war and not exceeding 21 months after the exchange of ratification of the treaty of peace.

As respects the control of industrial relations the new act incorporates some of the corresponding provisions of the Federal control act of March 21, 1918. Two kinds of boards are created to handle disputes: (a) Railroad boards of labor adjustment; (b) a railroad labor board.

The railroad administration act provided for three labor adjustment boards. No statement is contained in the new law as to the number of such boards. This class of boards, whatever the number set up, is to take jurisdiction of any dispute upon application of the chief executive of any carrier or organization of employees or upon the written petition of not less than 100 unorganized employees, or upon motion of the adjustment board itself on the request of the labor board.

No rules are laid down defining the precise composition of these adjustment boards and their methods of procedure. These matters are left to the decision of the carriers and their employees.

The labor adjustment boards receive for hearing and decide disputes involving only grievances, rules of employment, and working conditions which have not been settled in conference between the carrier and its employees. The transportation act, it will be observed, makes no change in the methods of collective dealing now in practice among the carriers and their employees for the making of the labor contract and determining general conditions of employment. The act, however, does attempt to give voice to the unorganized employees of the railroad. Whether or not this method of approach in dealing with the employees proves effective remains to be seen in the course of administration of the act.

The principal agency created by the law for the final adjustment of disputes between the railroads and their employees is the Railroad Labor Board. This board is composed of nine members—three representing the employees and subordinate officials, three representing the carriers, and three representing the public. All three groups of members are appointed by the President with the consent of the Senate, the first two groups from not less than six nominees offered by the employees and the carriers, respectively. Failure of either group to propose nominees gives the President power to appoint members directly to represent the group. The third group is appointed directly by the President.

The members of the board may not hold active membership in any organization of employees or be pecuniarily interested in any carrier. Honorary membership in any organization or rights to insurance or pension benefits in such organization are not required to be relinquished. The term of office is five years, and the salary $10,000 per annum. Removal for cause rests with the President.

The labor board is authorized to hear and decide on appeal from the adjustment boards matters which those boards are empowered to consider. Wage or salary disputes which are not within the jurisdiction of the adjustment boards are also decided by the labor board if not settled by conference between the carriers and their employees. The labor board obtains jurisdiction of all disputes in the same manner as the adjustment boards, namely, upon its own motion or

upon petition of the carrier or of the employees, whether organized or unorganized.

The board may suspend the operation of any decision between a carrier and its employees if there is involved an increase in wages or salaries such as to necessitate substantial readjustment of rates.

Decisions of the Labor Board require the assent of at least five of the nine members, and in cases of decisions affecting wages or salaries at least one of the representatives of the public must concur in the decision.

The board has wide powers in compelling the attendance of witnesses, production of books, documents, and other information. While no penalty is provided for the violation of a decision of the labor board, yet the board is authorized to examine into the observance of its decisions and to make public the facts in any case.

In making its decisions affecting salaries and wages the board is directed to take into consideration as far as applicable, certain relevant circumstances. These relevant factors are: (1) The scale of wages paid for similar kinds of work in other industries; (2) the relation between wages and the cost of living; (3) the hazards of the employment; (4) the training and skill required; (5) the degree of responsibility; (6) the character and regularity of the employment; and (7) inequalities of increases in wages or of treatment, the result of previous wage orders or adjustments.

The Labor Board becomes a continuing investigational agency respecting the relation between the carriers and their employees, particularly as to questions of wages, hours of work, conditions of employment, and the privileges, rights and duties of carriers and employees. It is authorized to gather, classify, and publish from time to time information relating to such questions. It is required to publish annually its administrative decisions and regulations as well as those of the Interstate Commerce Commission in so far as the latter affect industrial relations.

The act requires each carrier to continue until September 1, 1920, the scale of compensation of its employees and subordinate officials which have been fixed under the Federal railroad control act. After that period wages will become subject to new adjustments between the carriers and their employees.

The Interstate Commerce Commission plays no essential part, exercises no control, within the field of industrial relations under the act. Its sole function in this respect is that of drafting the rules for the selecting of the members of the Railroad Labor Board.

The prohibition of strikes, contained in the Senate Bill, was not incorporated in the law. Apparently the law contains no provision for compulsory delay in striking pending investigation of a dispute. The act merely cites it as "the duty of all carriers and their officers, employees, and agents to exert every reasonable effort and adopt every

available means to avoid any interruption to the operation of any carrier growing out of any dispute between the carrier and the employees or subordinate officials thereof." It is a duty without penalty that is here stated. Whether or not the method of the injunction could be invoked to enforce that duty will be one for future determination by the courts.

LABOR PROVISIONS

The labor provisions of the Transportation Act of 1920, as outlined in Title III of the act, are as follows:

SECTION 300. When used in this title—

(1) The term "carrier" includes any express company, sleeping car company, and any carrier by railroad, subject to the Interstate Commerce Act, except a street, interurban, or suburban electric railway not operating as a part of a general steam railroad system of transportation.

(2) The term "adjustment board" means any railroad board of labor adjustment established under section 302.

(3) The term "labor board" means the Railroad Labor Board.

(4) The term "commerce" means commerce among the several States or between any State, Territory, or the District of Columbia and any foreign nation, or between any Territory or the District of Columbia and any State, or between any Territory and any other Territory, or between any Territory and the District of Columbia, or within any Territory or the District of Columbia, or between points in the same State but through any other State or any Territory or the District of Columbia or any foreign nation; and

(5) The term "subordinate official" includes officials of carriers of such class or rank as the commission shall designate by regulation formulated and issued after such notice and hearing as the commission may prescribe, to the carriers, and employees and subordinate officials of carriers, and organizations thereof, directly to be affected by such regulations.

SEC. 301. It shall be the duty of all carriers and their officers, employees and agents to exert every reasonable effort and adopt every available means to avoid any interruption to the operation of any carrier growing out of any dispute between the carrier and the employees or subordinate officials thereof. All such disputes shall be considered and, if possible, decided in conference between representatives designated and authorized so to confer by the carriers, or the employees or subordinate officials thereof, directly interested in the dispute. If any dispute is not decided in such conference, it shall be referred by the parties thereto to the board which under the provisions of this title is authorized to hear and decide such dispute.

SEC. 302. Railroad boards of labor adjustment may be established by agreement between any carrier, group of carriers, or the carriers as

a whole, and any employees or subordinate officials of carriers, or organization or group of organizations thereof.

SEC. 303. Each such adjustment board shall, (1) upon the application of the chief executive of any carrier or organization of employees or subordinate officials whose members are directly interested in the dispute, (2) upon the written petition signed by not less than 100 unorganized employees or subordinate officials directly interested in the dispute, (3) upon the adjustment board's own motion, or (4) upon the request of the labor board whenever such board is of the opinion that the dispute is likely substantially to interrupt commerce, receive for hearing, and as soon as practicable and with due diligence decide, any dispute involving only grievances, rules, or working conditions, not decided as provided in section 301, between the carrier and its employees or subordinate officials who are, or any organization thereof which is, in accordance with the provisions of section 302, represented upon any such adjustment board.

SEC. 304. There is hereby established a board to be known as the "Railroad Labor Board" and to be composed of nine members as follows:

(1) Three members constituting the labor group, representing the employees and subordinate officials of the carriers, to be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, from not less than six nominees whose nominations shall be made and offered by such employees in such manner as the commission shall by regulation prescribe;

(2) Three members, constituting the management group, representing the carriers, to be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, from not less than six nominees whose nominations shall be made and offered by the carriers in such manner as the commission shall by regulation prescribe; and

(3) Three members, constituting the public group, representing the public, to be appointed directly by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate.

Any vacancy on the labor board shall be filled in the same manner as the original appointment.

SEC. 305. If either the employees or the carriers fail to make nominations, and offer nominees in accordance with the regulations of the commission, as provided in paragraphs (1) and (2) of section 304 within thirty days after the passage of this act in case of any original appointment to the office of member of the labor board, or in case of a vacancy in any such office within fifteen days after such vacancy occurs, the President shall thereupon directly make the appointment, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. In making any such appointment the President shall, as far as he deems it practicable, select an individual associated in interest with the carriers or employees thereof, whichever he is to represent.

SEC. 305. (a) Any member of the Labor Board, one from each group, shall be appointed for a term of three years, one for two years, and one for one year. Their successors shall hold office for terms of five years, except that any member appointed to fill a vacancy shall be appointed only for the unexpired term of the member whom he succeeds. Each member shall receive from the United States an annual salary of $10,000. A member may be removed by the President for neglect of duty or malfeasance in office, but for no other cause.

SEC. 307. (a) The labor board shall hear and, as soon as practicable and with due diligence, decide any dispute involving grievances, rules, or working conditions, in respect to which any adjustment board certifies to the labor board that in its opinion the adjustment board has failed or will fail to reach a decision within a reasonable time, or in respect to which the labor board determines that any adjustment board has failed or is not using due diligence in its consideration thereof. In case the appropriate adjustment board is not organized under the provisions of section 302, the labor board, (1) upon the application of the chief executive of any carrier or organization of employees or subordinate officials whose members are directly interested in the dispute, (2) upon a written petition signed by not less than 100 unorganized employees or subordinate officials directly interested in the dispute, or (3) upon the labor board's own motion if it is of the opinion that the dispute is likely substantially to interrupt commerce, shall receive for hearing, and as soon as practicable and with due diligence decide, any dispute involving grievances, rules or working conditions which is not decided as provided in section 301 and which such adjustment board would be required to receive for hearing and decision under the provisions of section 303.

(b) The labor board, (1) upon the application of the chief executive of any carrier or organization of employees or subordinate officials whose members are directly interested in the dispute, (2) upon a written petition signed by not less than 100 unorganized employees or subordinate officials directly interested in the dispute, or (3) upon the labor board's own motion if it is of the opinion that the dispute is likely substantially to interrupt commerce, shall receive for hearing, and as soon as practicable and with due diligence decide, all disputes with respect to the wages or salaries of employees or subordinate officials of carriers, not decided as provided in section 301. The labor board may upon its own motion within ten days after the decision, in accordance with the provisions of section 301, of any dispute with respect to wages or salaries of employees or subordinate officials or carriers, suspend the operation of such decision if the labor board is of the opinion that the decision involves such an increase in wages or salaries as will be likely to necessitate a substantial readjustment of the rates of any carrier. The labor board shall hear any decision so suspended and as soon as practicable and with due diligence decide to affirm or modify such suspended decision.

(c) A decision by the labor board under the provisions of paragraphs (a) or (b) of this section shall require the concurrence therein of at least 5 of the 9 members of the labor board: Provided, That in case of any decision under paragraph (b) at least one of the representatives of the public shall concur in such decision. All decisions of the labor board shall be entered upon the records of the board, and copies thereof, together with such statements of facts bearing thereon as the board may deem proper, shall be immediately communicated to the parties to the dispute, the President, each adjustment board, and the commission, and shall be given further publicity in such manner as the labor board may determine.

(d) All the decisions of the labor board in respect to wages or salaries and of the labor board or an adjustment board in respect to working conditions of employees or subordinate officials of carriers shall establish rates of wages and salaries and standards of working conditions whch in the opinion of the board are just and reasonable. In determining the justness and reasonableness of such wages and salaries or working conditions the board shall, so far as applicable, take into consideration among other relevant circumstances:

(1) The scales of wages paid for similar kinds of work in other industries;

(2) The relation between wages and the cost of living;

(3) The hazards of the employment;

(4) The training and skill required;

(5) The degree of responsibility;

(6) The character and regularity of the employment; and

(7) Inequalities of increases in wages or of treatment, the result of previous wage orders or adjustments.

SEC. 308. The labor board—

(1) Shall elect a chairman by majority vote of its members;

(2) Shall maintain central offices in Chicago, Illinois, but the labor board may, whenever it deems it necessary, meet at such other place as it may determine;

(3) Shall investigate and study the relations between carriers and their employees, particularly questions relating to wages, hours of labor, and other conditions of employment and the respective privileges, rights, and duties of carriers and employees, and shall gather, compile, classify, digest, and publish from time to time, data and information relating to such questons, to the end that the labor board may be properly equipped to perform its duties under this title and that the members of the adjustment boards and the public may be properly informed;

(4) May make regulations necessary for the efficient execution of the functions vested in it by this title; and

(5) Shall at least annually collect and publish the decisions and regulations of the labor board and the adjustment boards and all court and administrative decisions and regulations of the commission in respect to this title, together with a cumulative index digest thereof.

SEC. 309. Any party to any dispute to be considered by an adjustment board or by the labor board shall be entitled to a hearing either in person or by counsel.

SEC. 310. (a) For the efficient administration of the functions vested in the labor board by this title any member thereof may require by subpoena issued and signed by himself the attendance of any witness and the production of any book, paper, document, or other evidence from any place in the United States at any designated place of hearing, and the taking of a deposition before any designated person having power to administer oaths. In the case of a deposition the testimony shall be reduced to writing by the person taking the deposition or under his direction and shall then be subscribed by the deponent. Any member of the labor board may administer oaths and examine any witness. Any witness summoned before the board and any witness whose deposition is taken shall be paid the same fees and mileage as are paid witnesses in the courts of the United States.

(b) In case of failure to comply with any subpoena or in case of the contumacy of any witness appearing before the labor board the board may invoke the aid of any United States district court. Such court may thereupon order the witness to comply with the requirements of such subpoena, or to give evidence touching the matter in question, as the case may be. Any failure to obey such order may be punished by such court as a contempt thereof.

(c) No person shall be excused from so attending and testifying or deposing, nor from so producing any book, paper, document, or other evidence on the ground that the testimony or evidence, documentary or otherwise required of him may tend to incriminate him or subject him to a penalty or forfeiture; but no natural person shall be prosecuted or subjected to any penalty or forfeiture for or on account of any transaction, matter, or thing as to which, in obedience to a subpoena and under oath, he may so testify or produce evidence, documentary or otherwise. But no person shall be exempt from prosecution and punishment for perjury committed in so testifying.

SEC. 311. (a) When necessary to the efficient administration of the functions vested in the labor board by this title, any member, officer, employee, or agent thereof, duly authorized in writing by the board, shall at all reasonable times, for the purpose of examination, have access to and the right to copy any book, account, record, paper, or correspondence relating to any matter which the board is authorized to consider or investigate. Any person who upon demand refuses any duly authorized member, officer, employee, or agent of the labor

board such right of access or copying, or hinders, obstructs, or resists him in the exercise of such right shall, upon conviction thereof, be liable to a penalty of $500 for each such offense. Each day during any part of which such offense continues shall constitute a separate offense. Such penalty shall be recoverable in a civil suit brought in the name of the United States, and shall be covered into the Treasury of the United States as miscellaneous receipts.

(b) Every officer or employee of the United States, whenever requested by any member of the labor board or an adjustment board duly authorized by the board for the purpose, shall supply to such board any data or information pertaining to the administration of the functions vested in it by this title which may be contained in the records of his office.

(c) The President is authorized to transfer to the labor board any books, papers, or documents pertaining to the administration of the functions vested in the board by this title which are in the possession of any agency or railway board of adjustment in connection therewith established for executing the powers granted the President under the Federal control act and which are no longer necessary to the administration of the affairs of such agency.

SEC. 312. Prior to September 1, 1920 each carrier shall pay to each employee or subordinate official thereof wages or salary at a rate not less than that fixed by the decision of any agency, or railway board of adjustment in connection therewith, established for executing the powers granted the President under the Federal control act, in effect in respect to such employee or surbordinate official immediately preceding 12:01 a. m., March 1, 1920. Any carrier acting in violation of any provision of this section shall, upon conviction thereof, be liable to a penalty of $100 for each such offense. Each such action with respect to any such employee or subordinate official and each day or portion thereof during which the offense continues shall constitute a separate offense. Such penalty shall be recoverable in a civil suit brought in the name of the United States and shall be covered into the Treasury of the United States as miscellaneous receipts.

SEC. 313. The labor board, in case it has reason to believe that any decision of the labor board, or of an adjustment board, is violated by any carrier, or employee or subordinate official, or organization thereof, may upon its own motion after due notice and hearing to all persons directly interested in such violation, determine whether in its opinion such violation has occurred and make public its decision in such manner as it may determine.

SEC. 314. The labor board may (1) appoint a secretary, who shall receive from the United States an annual salary of $5,000; and (2) subject to the provisions of the civil-service laws, appoint and remove such officers, employees, and agents; and make such expenditures

for rent, printing, telegrams, telephone, law books, books of reference, periodicals, furniture, stationery, office equipment, and other supplies and expenses, including salaries, traveling expenses of its members, secretary, officers, employees, and agents, and witness fees as are necessary for the efficient execution of the functions vested in the board by this title and as may be provided for by Congress from time to time. All of the expenditures of the labor board shall be allowed and paid upon the presentation of itemized vouchers therefor approved by the chairman of the labor board.

SEC. 315. There is hereby appropriated for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1920, out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, the sum of $50,000, or so much thereof as may be necessary, to be expended by the labor board, for defraying the expenses of the maintenance and establishment of the board, including the payment of salaries as provided in this title.

SEC. 316. The powers and duties of the board of mediation and conciliation created by the act approved July 15, 1913, shall not extend to any dispute which may be received for hearing and decision by any adjustment board or the labor board.

SUMMARY OF INDUSTRIAL LEGISLATION

The following statement shows in a summary form the status of existing legislation on November 1, 1916, relative to strikes and the maintenance of industrial peace on the railways and in other public-utility service of the leading commercial nations of the world except the United States. This is taken from House Document No. 2117, 64th Congress, 2nd Session, entitled "Railway Strikes and Lockouts: A study of arbitration and conciliation laws of the principal countries of the world providing machinery for the peaceable adjustment of disputes between railroads and their employees, and laws of certain countries for the prevention of strikes." This document was prepared by the United States Board of Mediation and was issued November 1, 1916.

Australasia

Commonwealth of Australia

The Court of Conciliation and Arbitration consists of a president, who is a member of the Federal Supreme Court, and judges of the Federal or a State Supreme Court, appointed by the president as his deputies. Provision is also made for conciliation committees of equal numbers of employers and employees; assessors representing the parties appointed by the court to advise it, and local industrial boards, equally representative of workers and employers, presided over by a judge of the Supreme Court of the Commonwealth or supreme courts of the States. The procedure is varied. The president of the court may summon parties to a dispute and by conference aim to

reach an amicable settlement; or there may be an investigation as the basis of an amicable settlement; or temporary reference of a matter to a conciliation committee or local industrial board. All amicable settlements have the force of a formal award.

The initiation or continuance of any strike by any organization or person is prohibited. A penalty of £1,000 exists against any person or organization responsible for a strike or lockout.

New South Wales

In New South Wales the law is similar to that of the Commonwealth and of Queensland in that there are both an industrial court (which is a superior court and a court of record) and industrial boards for groups of industries or callings, awards by the latter being subject to amendment, variation, or rescission by the court.

Strikes and lockouts of all kinds are prohibited. An injunction may be issued by the industrial court. For violation, the employer is liable to a fine of £1,000; the worker is liable to a fine of £50, which is a charge on his wages. If the striker is a member of a union, he may be held liable for not exceeding £20 of the penalty. The penalty on unions for aiding or instigating a strike is £1,000.

New Zealand

The legal machinery for the adjustment of disputes in New Zealand consists of a court of arbitration, consisting of three members appointed by the Governor to serve for three years, one "judge of the court" to have the tenure, status, and emoluments of a judge of the Supreme Court, and one each nominated by unions of employers and workmen, respectively; councils of conciliation, consisting of a conciliation commissioner appointed by the Governor for a term of three years, to have jurisdiction within a designated industrial district, and one to three assessors appointed by the commissioner for the occasion, on the nomination of the parties applying for a conciliation council, a like number to be appointed on the nomination of the respondents; boards of investigation appointed by court of arbitration. The procedure is for a council of conciliation, when requested, to attempt to adjust the controversy. Failing in this, the matter may be referred to the court of arbitration, which shall make a determination. Disputes involving workers on the Government railways or affecting more than one industrial district may be brought before the court in the first instance by application of a union of railway employees in the one case and of any party to the dispute in the other.

Conditions under which strikes are prohibited are as follows: (a) Under the industrial conciliation and arbitration amendment of 1908, which applies only to cases where an award or an industrial agreement is in force, strikes and lockouts are prohibited. (b) Under the labor disputes investigation act of 1913, which applies only

to cases where there is not an existing award or industrial agreement, notice must be given to the minister, who must refer the matter to an industrial commissioner or committee. If no settlement is effected within fourteen days from delivery of notice to the minister, the Labor Department conducts a secret ballot, and then seven days must elapse before cessation of work .

Penalties for enforcement of anti-strike legislation are as follows: (a) Employer is liable to £500 fine and employee to £10. In the case of public utilities the penalty to the worker is £25. For encouraging or instigating a strike or lockout the scale of fines is: Worker, £10; employer of union, £200. The wages of workers may be attached for fines. (b) Penalty for striking or locking out before notice is given or before expiration of seven days from the secret ballot, £10 to a worker and £500 to employer. Wages of worker may be attached.

At any time during the progress of a strike 5 per cent of the workers concerned may demand a secret ballot on any question relating to the strike.

Queensland

There is an industrial court administered by a judge appointed by the Governor in council. Local industrial boards are also created on the application of a prescribed number of employers and employees. The court has jurisdiction over certain classes of cases directly and over others on appeal from industrial boards.

In the case of public utilities, strikes and lockouts are illegal unless a conference has been held before an industrial judge and proved abortive and unless fourteen days notice has been given after termination of conference and a secret ballot has been taken. In all other cases, fourteen days notice must be given and a secret ballot taken. A fine of £1,000 may be levied on employer or union, and £50 on worker. If the worker is a member of a union, not to exceed £20 of the penalty may be levied against the union. Penalties are made a charge on wages and on funds of associations.

South Australia

The judge of the industrial court brings parties together when any dispute occurs, and may make an award in trades where there is none in force, or may change an existing award. Then sitting to make a final adjudication, two assessors, representing the respective parties to the dispute, assist the judge if he thinks fit.

All strikes and lockouts are illegal. For a violation, a fine of £500 against a person, or three months imprisonment. Fine of £20 or three months imprisonment for picketing. Fines are made a charge against funds of associations and on wages over and above

£2 a week. An employer who refuses to employ or a worker who refuses to accept work, where there is an industrial agreement or award in operation, may be fined.

Tasmania

The Governor appoints wages boards. Determination of wages boards may be suspended by the Governor, and the boards are then required to review their action. Appeals may be taken from the wages boards to the Supreme Court. No provision is made for conciliation.

All strikes and lockouts in wages boards trades on account of any matter as to which a determination has been reached are prohibited. A fine of £500 may be levied against an organization and £20 against an individual for a violation of anti-strike legislation.

Victoria

No legislation.

Western Australia

The court of arbitration consists of a judge of the Supreme Court and two representatives from employers and employees, all three being appointed by the Governor. No provision is made for local tribunals, and matters come directly before the court of arbitration or the presiding judge.

Strikes and lockouts are illegal. An employer cannot discharge a worker nor can a worker cease work (1) before a reasonable time has elapsed for the matter to be dealt with by the court, or (2) during the time the proceedings in court are pending. A fine of £100 may be levied against an industrial union or employer, and of £10 against the worker.

Austria

Strikes and lockouts on public utilities are prohibited. For violation the union may be dissolved and funds and property seized.

Before forming a union the organization must notify the Government authorities and send them a copy of the constitution and by-laws. The authorities may then forbid the formation of the union if they consider it will be dangerous to the State.

Belgium

Trades unions of employees of public utilities are permitted under Government supervision. Employees may present grievances or requests to the minister of railways, posts, and telegraph, through official channels.

Strikes and lockouts are prohibited on railroads and in all forms of public service (railway, postal, telegraph, and telephone service, all of which are under State control). Imprisonment or fine is the penalty for enforcement of anti-strike legislation.

There has been no serious strike on Belgian railroads since their establishment. This is due to the fact that positions on the railways are much sought after because of stability of employment, pensions, and on account of the prestige of being in the Government service.

Canada

The law is administered by the Minister of Labor and is under the immediate direction of the Registrar of Boards of Conciliation and Investigation appointed by the Governor in council. Boards of conciliation and investigation are appointed by the Minister of Labor, one member being nominated by each party to the dispute, and the third by these two. If nominations are not made in due time, the minister appoints on his own motion. Jurisdiction by the minister is obtained by the request of either party for the appointment of a board of conciliation and investigation.

Strikes and lockouts are illegal in public utilities and mines until after an investigation by the Government board and the publication of its report. A fine ranging from £2 to £10 may be levied on each worker, and from £20 to £200 on each employer, for each day an illegal strike or lockout continues. Penalties are not imposed by the Government, but must be enforced by the injured party to the dispute.

The object sought in publishing the report of boards of investigation is to enlist the coercive force of public opinion upon the side of the right as found by the board.

Denmark

By a law passed in 1910 provision is made for the appointment of a permanent arbitration court of six members selected from organizations of employers and employees, with a president and vice-president with qualifications of an ordinary judge. It is the duty of this court to make the parties to a dispute respect any agreement between them. A government conciliator is appointed for two years. Whenever a strike or lockout is impending (public notice being compulsory), it is his duty to intervene and attempt to effect a settlement.

Strikes or lockouts are prohibited in cases where court awards or trade agreements are broken. In cases where no trade agreement exists a strike is legal, but public notice must be given before it is started. Fines are imposed for violations.

England

There is no legal machinery, strictly speaking, for the adjustment of wage disputes on the railways, but effective machinery is in existence which is quasi-official, consisting of an agreement between the railroads and their employees, which was originally negotiated by a representative of the Board of Trade in 1907. It was amended as the result of conferences and the report of a royal commission in 1911. By this agreement boards are created, with equal representation of railroads and employees, to perform the conciliation work not settled by direct negotiation between the parties. If a settlement cannot be reached, a neutral chairman or umpire, selected by the conciliation boards from a panel prepared by the Board of Trade, is called in, and his decision is final.

There is no legislation prohibiting or making illegal strikes and lockouts. There are no penalties against strikes and lockouts.

The adjustment of disputes on other public utilities and in the mining industry is provided for in the Conciliation Act of 1896. Conciliators or boards of conciliation are appointed on the application of both parties, selected from panels of employers, employees, and "persons of eminence and impartiality" established by the Board of Trade. For conciliation proceedings the Board of Trade acts on its own initiative or by the request of either party; for arbitration, on the application of both parties.

France

The only qualification as to complete freedom of action in the railway service is that any engineer, fireman, or trainman shall not desert his post during the progress of a journey. Postal employees and employees in shipping service controlled by the Government are prohibited from striking. Desertion of trains between terminals is punishable with imprisonment ranging from six months to two years. Postal and other civil employees may be dismissed or suffer losses in pay. The monopoly privilege may be withdrawn from the shipping service on which a strike occurs.

In all occupations except those mentioned the right of employers and employees to take concerted action in a peaceful manner with a view to cessation of work has been officially recognized since 1884. On October 2, 1910, the National Federation of Railway Employees of France and the Federation of Unions of Railway Engineers and Firemen called a general strike on all the railroads of the country. The Government, using its full authority under military laws, called for a mobilization of the strikers, and ordered them to do military duty for three weeks. Their military duties were specified as the keeping of the railways under normal working conditions under the orders of their superior officers. This measure defeated the strike, which was called off after six days.

Germany

Means for enabling railway workers of all groups to bring their requests and grievances to the notice of all authorities have been instituted by all the State railway administrations in Germany under the name of workmen's committees.

Strikes and lockouts are practically prohibited on public utilities. There are no specific laws forbidding strikes, but rules and practices of railway and other public utilities administration make strikes impossible. About 90 per cent of the organized railway employees belong to unions, the by-laws of which specifically waive all claim to the right to strike. No specific penalties exist for engaging in strikes, but workmen are forbidden to belong to unions which assert the right to strike. All union organizations and by-laws are subject to governmental sanction. The coercive force of the law is found in the fact that a railway employee who engaged in a strike would be dismissed or fail of advancement in his work. Every Government employee looks forward to attaining the status of an "official," and this is practically impossible if he belongs to or is known to sympathize with a trade-union which does not meet with Government approval.

Holland

Delegates are selected from different groups of railway employees who are authorized to present the wishes and complaints of railway workers before the managers. Arbitration boards have been established for the enforcement of penalties imposed because of infractions of working rules and conditions.

Strikes in railway service are prohibited. Imprisonment or fine is imposed for violations.

Legislation prohibiting strikes was the outcome of a general strike in the Dutch railway service in 1903.

Italy

Strikes are prohibited in railway and public service. Fine and loss of employment are the penalties provided for enforcement of anti-strike legislation.

Legislation relative to fines and loss of employment would not practically prevent strikes, because of the impossibility of enforcing the law upon so many individuals. The real restraining influence is the power of the Government to call out the reserves and compel strikers to resume work under military law.

Ottoman Empire

In the case of a dispute relative to wages or working conditions, a conciliation board is organized, composed of six members, three

representing employers and three representing employees. The boards are presided over by an official appointed by the Government. The agreements reached by these boards are enforced by the Government. If the parties to the dispute cannot agree, the employees are free to stop work, but nothing must be done by them opposed to freedom of action.

Strikes in public utilities are unlawful until grounds of dispute are communicated to the Government and attempts at conciliation have failed. Imprisonment or fine is imposed for violations.

The organization of trade-unions in establishments carrying out any public service is forbidden.

Portugal

Strikes and lockouts are illegal in public utilities until eight to twelve days notice has been given, together with a statement as to the causes for a strike. Loss of employment is the penalty for violations.

In all services, except public utilities, strikes have been expressly permitted since the establishment of the Republic in 1910.

Rumania

Strikes are prohibited in public utilities. Imprisonment and loss of employment result from violations.

No employee of a public utility can join a trade-union without the authorization of the Government.

Russia

Strikes are prohibited among employees of public utilities. Imprisonment and loss of employment are penalties. Authorities may arrest or banish strikers without bringing them before a court.

Spain

Strikes are illegal in public utilities until five to eight days notice is given, together with a statement as to the cause of the strike. Leaders and officials of labor organizations or concerted movements who do not make a declaration as to the causes for a strike are liable to imprisonment.

In industries other than public utilities strikes are expressly allowed, provided they are not accompanied by threats or violence.

Switzerland

The Canton of Geneva has established a system of conciliation and arbitration. Conciliators are elected directly by the two parties

to the dispute. If they cannot reach a settlement, recourse is had to an arbitration board under Government auspices. There is no law for the settlement of disputes in the Federal railway service.

Strikes are prohibited in the Federal railway service and in the Canton of Geneva whenever an industrial agreement or award is broken. In the Federal service strikes are punishable by fines and reprimands. There are no penalties in the Canton of Geneva.

There have been no strikes on the railways of Switzerland since their nationalization in 1897.

Transvaal

The Transvaal law is administered by a department of labor. Boards of investigation are appointed on the request of either party to a dispute. The board has the power of the Supreme Court as to securing evidence, etc., but cannot make binding orders. Failing the adjustment of a dispute by agreement, the board reports to the Minister of Labor its recommendations, which are officially published and also given to the newspapers.

In public utilities, the mining industry, and in any other industry to which the provisions of the act are extended by proclamation, strikes are unlawful until after an inquiry by a Government board and until one month after the publication of the board's report. Any striker is liable to a fine of £10 to £50 a day, and, in default of fine, imprisonment, or imprisonment for three months without the option of fine. Any one encouraging another to strike may be fined £50 to £250 or given six months imprisonment. Any employer declaring a lockout may be fined £100 to £1,000 a day, or given twelve months imprisonment.

The Transvaal law is based, as regards prevention and procedure, upon the Canadian industrial disputes investigation act of 1907.

References—Affirmative

STRIKES

(By Ben W. Hooper, Chairman of the United States Railroad Labor Board, in the *Saturday Evening Post*, October 14, 1922.)

The method devised by Congress and embraced in the Transportation Act for the adjustment of railroad labor disputes was a strange combination of strength and weakness. It contained mandatory requirements that the carriers and the employees should endeavor, in conference, to settle all disputes, and failing to reach an agreement should submit the controversy to the Railroad Labor Board. It provided that the Board should hear and decide all such disputes, but it did not provide any means or method for the enforcement of the Board's decisions other than the right conferred upon the Board to make public the fact that either party had violated a given decision.

Here was a new experiment in American legislation, a law without the sanction of a penalty, a tribunal required to pass upon questions involving hundreds of millions of dollars and the precious rights of millions of men, leaving to both parties absolute unfettered freedom to violate the final decision and to visit upon the whole nation the grievous results of such violation. It was expected that the Board should make its decisions so obviously "just and reasonable" that they would be voluntarily accepted by both parties. It was apparently not in the contemplation of Congress that one or both of the parties themselves might occasionally become unjust and unreasonable. Not only was the Board given no powers of compulsion but very properly it was not vested with powers of mediation. It can decide, but cannot compromise.

Functions of the Board

At a first glance this plan would appear to the sophisticated judgment of any man on the street as a pipe dream. His knowledge of the proclivity of mankind to violate any and all laws, even at the peril of fine, imprisonment and the noose, would bring from him the quick opinion that the decisions of the Labor Board would be uniformly ignored by the loser and respected only by the winner.

There were, however, psychological and economic factors lying just underneath the surface of things that made this idea less fan-

tastic than it was held to be by the casual appraisal of the sophisticated citizen aforesaid. One of these was the fact that such a board would afford both the carriers and the employees a battleground upon which to conduct their industrial struggles—in the vernacular, a place where they could get their troubles off their chests. Instead of being compelled to deadlock across a conference table and ultimately, in some instances, to fight out their differences in strikes and lockouts when they did not really want to fight, the Labor Board would furnish the disputants a decisive method for terminating controversies. The habit of acquiescing in the Board's decision on questions of minor importance would naturally extend to the observance of the Board's judgment in many cases of more vital concern, where otherwise strikes would have resulted. It will be remembered that in days gone by many strikes were justified by the assertion that there was no place to take the dispute and nothing to do but strike. It was also believed that both parties would often consider it of great financial advantage to escape the burdens and losses of a strike when it could be done honorably and where the matter at stake was not too great. In connection with the foregoing considerations it was always assumed that the Labor Board would be so fairly and impartially constituted as to command a reasonable degree of confidence from both sides. In addition to all these things there was ground for the belief that public opinion would, in fact, exert a powerful influence on both the carriers and the employees, as it would be a grave tactical blunder for either party to run counter to a positive and well-defined public sentiment.

It is safe to say, however, that though Congress felt that the force of public opinion would usually make effective the Board's decisions, occasions would arise when self-interest would tempt both parties to rebel. This very natural and logical conclusion caused the Senate to incorporate in the bill as it passed that body a provision for the punishment of violations of the Board's decisions by either the roads or the men.

There was a mild anti-strike clause, forbidding the concerted walkout of the strike, but expressly recognizing the right of the individual to leave the service at any time. This provision was eliminated by the House in response to the vigorous insistence of the labor organizations. In fact, the railway employees strenuously resisted the enactment of the law even without the anti-strike provision, on the theory that its requirements measurably restricted their right to strike.

It must be said to the credit of the labor organizations that, notwithstanding their opposition to the passage of the Transportation Act, they immediately perfected their machinery for the submission

of cases before the Board and have continued to compile data and make most painstaking and elaborate presentation of their contentions.

During the two and one-half years that have elapsed since the Railroad Labor Board came into existence it has disposed of 8,417 questions brought to it by the carriers and the employees. Of these, 7,727 have been disputes formally docketed, heard and decided. Among them were the disputes comprised in three general readjustments of wages and the revision of rules, applicable to all the railroads and the various classes of the employees.

This great volume of work done by the Board may prove its energy and industry, but the question of practical interest to the public is: To what extent has it accomplished the paramount purpose for which it was created—namely, the prevention of strikes that interrupt commerce?

Leaving out of consideration the so-called outlaw switchmen's strike which was under headway before the Board was organized in April, 1920, two strike situations have so far confronted the Board. In October 1921, all sixteen major railway-labor organizations, comprising the train and engine men, the switchmen, the six shop crafts, the clerks, telegraphers, maintenance-of-way employees and the smaller organizations, voted to strike in protest against the wage reduction of July first, previous. This threatened strike was averted by members of the Board by the exercise of extra-official methods of conciliation at the last minute.

Carriers' Contract Shops

After this disturbance had cleared away, labor conditions on the railroads remained quiet until the spring of 1922. It will be observed that the Board had functioned for more than two years without a strike of any magnitude.

Beginning May twenty-fifth, a series of decisions reducing the wages of several classes of employees was issued, effective July first. Following these decisions the Federated Shop Crafts, the Maintenance-of-way, the Stationary Firemen and Oilers, the Signalmen, and on some roads the Clerks, put out strike ballots. In all cases except that of the Shop Crafts the vote was taken on the one question of accepting the wage reduction. The Shopmen submitted to a vote of their membership three distinct questions, namely:

The contracting of certain carriers' shops to be operated by so-called independent contractors;

The Board's recent wage reduction;

Seven of the rules handed down by the Board in the latter part of 1921 and accepted by the men under formal protest.

The system of contracting railroad shops had rapidly spread to a considerable number of carriers. With variations in detail it usually took the form of handing over to an outside contractor the shops of a road, with all their machinery, tools and equipment, with all necessary material and supplies for the shop work to be furnished by the carrier and with the agreement to pay the contractor a certain per cent of the amount of the pay roll as a consideration for his operation of the shops. Some of these contracts were made with men who had enjoyed little or no experience in shop work or with men who until quite recently had been employed as officials of the carriers. The carriers, of course, continued to maintain elaborate supervision of the work. The theory underlying this system was that the shopmen ceased to be employees of the carrier and became employees of the contractor, and were therefore no longer under the jurisdiction of the Labor Board. This legal metamorphosis left the men doing the same railroad work as before, but their wages and working rules were now arbitrarily fixed by the contractor. The rules and wages, which had cost their organizations years of effort and great financial expenditure to build up and establish and which had been sanctioned in their existing form by the Railroad Labor Board were swept away by this feat of legerdemain. At the same time if these men were, in fact, removed from under the Transportation Act, where Congress had placed them, the public was deprived of whatever efficacy the act contained for the prevention of strikes, and by the extension of this practice all employees could be taken from under the jurisdiction of the Board.

This situation was a very irritating one to the employees of this class, as well as to others to which it was applied. It originated in the desire of certain carriers to reduce wages more rapidly and to make more drastic changes in the rules than the board had deemed wise and proper. At the time the strike ballot was taken there were seventeen roads that had contracted all or a part of their shop work. Of course the roads strongly insisted on their legal right to enter into such contracts and pointed to the undisputed fact that this practice had obtained to some extent for many years prior to the enactment of the Transportation Act. This view, however, failed to take into account the important fact that a thing might have been perfectly permissible before the Transportation Act, but not afterwards.

The Labor Board in its decisions on these contract disputes held that the carriers might enter into such contracts if they desired, but that the contractor would be regarded by the Board merely as an agent of the carrier, and the shopmen would still be employees of the carrier, subject to the provisions of the Transportation Act and the decisions of the Board.

When the strike vote had been taken the Board, following a precedent set in the case of the train and engine service organizations last fall, cited the carriers and the organizations of employees about to strike to appear before it June thirtieth. In form this citation was for the purpose of conducting the statutory inquiry as to whether the Board's decisions had been violated, but in fact it was mainly for the purpose of bringing all parties face to face before the Board in a final effort to find means of averting the strike.

Just as the Board was convening it received a letter from the head of the Shop Crafts, declining to appear. The president of the Stationary Firemen and Oilers pursued the same course. Subpoenas were issued for both, but the president of the Shop Crafts could not be found He assigned as the reason for his absence the fact that the strike order was being sent out, and that his attendance would create uncertainty and confusion among the shopmen, which might result in disorder.

Attempts to Get Together

As the hearing progressed the railway executives whose roads had been contracting shop work were called upon to declare their purpose as to the observance of the Board's decisions in the contract cases and all but two of them agreed to abandon the contracts and conform to the decisions of the Board. This unquestionably helped to clear the atmosphere.

The representatives of the Brotherhood of Maintenance-of-Way Employees and the Signalmen attended the hearing. The examination of the respective heads of these organizations created a somewhat better feeling, and a few days later the president of the Maintenance-of-Way Brotherhood and his committee met members of the Board, and after a very full discussion of their troubles and grievances the organization decided to remain within the limits of the law and to resubmit the question of wages and of certain rules to the Board.

Soon afterward the president and the committee of the Signalmen held a similar meeting and discussion with members of the Board and announced their adoption of the same policy.

On July first, the day following the strike hearing, the strike order became effective and the shopmen struck on all the two hundred and one Class 1 railroads in the United States.

When the strike was less than two weeks old the leaders of the six Shop Crafts signified to the chairman of the Labor Board, after several conciliatory conferences, their willingness to have the men return to work and to ask for a rehearing by the Labor Board of the wage and rule decisions against which they had struck, but this offer was conditioned on the reinstatement of the strikers with their seniority rights unimpaired. This condition was rejected by the carriers on the ground that it would be a

violation of the rights of the employees who had remained in the service and of the new men who had just entered the employ of the roads. Thus it came about that every question upon which the men had gone out could be adjusted by means that would have been as easily available before they went out as afterward. Having needlessly gone out, the only question left to wrangle about was how to get back in. Around this point the battle raged for weeks. It was the subject of mediation, conference and even Presidential proclamation. This question of seniority, of which not one man in a hundred had ever heard before became a breakfast, lunch and dinner topic all over the United States. It was the subject of editorials, the text of sermons, and the inspiration of thousands of wordy whereases and resounding resolves. Although there were some who pronounced it a false issue and condemned the obstinacy of both parties for haggling about it while the consumer cried for coal and cantaloupes, it really involved a most vital question. That question was: Does the railway employee who goes out on a strike carry with him a vested right in his job and the benefits and privileges incident to it?

The striking shopmen answered in the affirmative and gave reasons that might be analyzed as follows:

The striker has not ceased to be an employee of the road, but has merely suspended work. He has assumed a status analogous to that of an employee on furlough, who, when he is recalled, resumes his former position on the seniority roster;

He had the right to suspend work in concert with his fellows—in other words, to strike—because the law recognizes his right to strike. In this particular instance he has not violated the Transportation Act, not even the objectionable decisions of the Railroad Labor Board, for in the exercise of the right given him by the act he had not accepted those decisions;

If the men lost the strike and were never taken back in a body the worker who returned individually could not claim his former position and the rights incident to it, but if the strike was won or settled and the men returned as a body they were entitled to the restoration of their positions and their places on the seniority roster;

The fact was pointed to that in many previous strikes the returning men had been accorded their former places with seniority.

The Executives' Reasoning

Analyzing in the same way the contentions of the railway executives, they were as follows:

Conceding that the employees had the right to strike, when they exercised that right they ceased to be employes. There is no simi-

larity between the striker and a man on furlough. The rules provide for furloughs and for the preservation of a man's seniority rights during the period of a furlough;

It was the undisputed right and duty of the carriers to employ men in the place of those who had struck, in order that they might discharge their legal and moral obligation to the public to maintain efficient and uninterrupted transportation;

It being the right and duty of the roads to employ men in the places of the strikers, the men so employed were rightful and legal employes of the roads, entitled to all the rights and privileges inuring to railway shopmen under the Transportation Act and the code of rules established in accordance with it. These rules are expressly applicable to all the shop employees of a road, both union and non-union, and they automatically apply to every new employe the minute he enters the service. Among these rules are those governing seniority. There is nothing in the rules or in the law that establishes the absurdity that a man may abandon his job or position, and at the same time retain any of the rights or perquisites incident to it;

Though it is true that in some strikes the men have been reinstated, this has been done by agreement or compromise between the parties and not as a matter of right in accordance with existing rules.

The President's first recommendation that the strikers be reinstated with seniority was such a compromise proposal, not purporting to reflect his views as to the principle involved in the seniority controversy; but his second recommendation suggested a course in strict conformity with the law and the rules—namely, that the seniority question be submitted to the Labor Board for decision.

From the foregoing synopsis of the respective lines of argument it is evident that the point in issue is one of deep significance both to the carriers and to the labor organizations, not only in its bearing on the present strike but in the handling of future labor troubles.

As this is written the shopmen's strike is still in progress, and thoughtful people are now taking an inventory of the entire railway-labor question, with a view to possible legislation at next winter's session of Congress. That there will be an avalanche of bills of infinite variety is already assured. The question, in the meantime, will have provoked some thought and much oratory in connection with the Congressional campaign.

Two Basic Facts

In this discussion there are two fundamental facts that will admit of no difference of opinion. The first is that the railway employees by a general strike involving all or the major organizations, as was threatened in the fall of 1921, can tie up, hard and fast, all the railroads in this country, from boundary to boundary, any time they see fit. All this outburst of conversation that occurs about once a year

in regard to running the trains with soldiers is mere vocal exercise. Soldiers can guard trains admirably, but there are very few of them that could operate a train.

We have had a demonstration of what the shop crafts alone can do to choke transportation. Here is a class of employees that the general public knew so little about that they were hardly regarded as railroad men. Really the train and engine men, the engineers, firemen, conductors, brakemen and switchmen are the only railroad employees that the public in general considers indispensable to the operation of the railways. It is true that the men who roll the wheels are of first importance in the operation of the trains, but there are other classes of employees, who perform work of a less conspicuous nature, that are essential to the maintenance of traffic. Dispatchers and telegraphers, mechanics, clerks, signalmen, maintenance-of-way employees and others contribute to the safety and efficiency of the modern railroad.

In case of a general strike comprising all classes of railway employees, what chance would there be to recruit a new force, competent in skill and adequate in numbers to keep traffic going? Absolutely none within any reasonable length of time. Enough competent men could be found to operate a few trains, but the traffic and travel that could be handled under such conditions would not be a drop in the bucket. Not only can the railway-labor organizations close down the roads but they can keep them shut down with practical completeness for a long period of time. The public might as well pigeonhole that fact now for convenient reference as go through the process of reacquiring it at enormous cost later on.

To this first proposition let a second be added of equal indisputability. A discontinuance of railway operation in the United States would bring upon the people instantaneous suffering, and loss that would be extended and accelerated by each passing day, until it had developed into the most overwhelming domestic catastrophe that ever befell our nation. Such a strike would be a greater economic disaster than was the war between the States, and it is within the range of possibilities that it would cost almost if not quite as many lives. It is not worth while to attempt to enumerate and describe in detail the inevitable results of a universal railroad strike. The rotting of fruits and vegatables in the fields, the denial of shipment to grain, livestock and other foodstuffs, the shutting down of mines and factories, the unemployment of unprecedented millions of people, the cutting off of fuel supplies to towns and cities, the consequent discontinuance of all sorts of public utilities, the stagnation of all manner of business, the freezing and starving of helpless men, women and children, the spread of disease and death, the hell of crime and disorder—these would be a few of the high spots in the general cataclysm. This picture is not overdrawn, as every man knows who has kept him-

self informed as to conditions in Europe and tendencies in the United States. It is based on the assumption that the strike would be fought to a slow and unyielding finish, just as the shop strike is now being fought. Of course if it be assumed that the railroad managements, the Federal Government and the governments of the various States took the other horn of the dilemma and fell on their knees before the strike leaders in abject surrender, then the country would escape the dire consequences otherwise in store for it. In that event just what ransom would be exacted would rest largely within the discretion and generosity of the strikers.

The paradoxical feature of this entire situation is that a general railroad strike of the sort here slightly sketched, aside from the incidental violence and disorder, would be perfectly lawful. The violence and disorder, the slugging, kidnapping, beating up and murder might as well be authorized by law, because they are the everlasting concomitants of the thing which is authorized—the railway strike. It is euphoniously said that men strike in order to exert economic pressure on their employers and on the public. The academic theory of the strike is that the employees of an industry, in effect, lay a wager that the industry cannot be run without their labor, and they discontinue work in order to put this wager to a practical test.

Making War on the Public

If a strike stopped at that point it might, indeed, be characterized as an economic contest; but no strike of any considerable proportions will ever halt at that stage. The men remaining at work who are waylaid and assaulted, their wives and children who are harassed and terrified by threats and by attacks on their homes, the laborers who are bombed in the shops, the public whose lives are endangered by wrecks, accidental or super-induced, the carriers whose buildings and rolling stock are destroyed by incendiarism—none of these would define their experiences as manifestations of economic pressure. They are naked and hideous physical force, approximating civil war. As a matter of fact the strike is a blockade, and the blockade is recognized as one of the most effective instruments of warfare. Without pausing to argue about who is responsible for the lawlessness incident to strikes, suffice it to say that one cannot conceive of a general railway strike devoid of a large amount of lawlessness. One might as well talk about sunshine without heat or rain without moisture.

The truth is that this alleged right to strike, this system of making war on the public in order to settle controversies with the railroads, is politically, morally and economically unsound. The continuation of such a system is not to the advantage of the public, the carriers or the employees. It will not be creditable to the legislative branch of our Government if a condition so fraught

with possibilities of industrial disturbance and political revolution is permitted to survive. It will be impossible to enact effective legislation that will not arouse the antagonism of one or both of the interests involved. It is, however, perfectly feasible to strengthen existing laws in a way that will guarantee substantial justice to the carriers and employees and protect the rights of the American people.

There are certain basic principles upon which such legislation must rest.

The 110,000,000 people of this country, the producers, shippers and consumers are as a matter of right entitled to efficient and fair-priced railway transportation, and as a matter of self-preservation they must have it.

Although the railroads are privately owned and operated, Congress has time and again asserted its power over interstate commerce to protect the public against imposition and discrimination upon the part of railway managements, and the Supreme Court has upheld such legislation. By the same token Congress may intervene with statutory enactments requiring railway employees to refrain from interruptions of interstate commerce destructive of the property and lives of the people.

There rests upon the shoulders of railway managements and of railway employees a public trust—the duty of furnishing to the people efficient transportation.

Railway strikes and lockouts must be made unlawful, and impartial punishment must be prescribed for violations of the labor laws by either managements or men. The exceptional railroad managements that have stood with extended hands to receive all favorable decisions from the Railroad Labor Board, but have contrived methods of evading unfavorable decisions, must, in justice to the employees and to the public, be brought sharply to account and made as amenable to the law as the humblest section hand.

Trial by Combat

It is merely a piece of fallacious rhetoric to say that an anti-strike law in the railway industry would establish involuntary servitude. No man would have to enter the railway service against his desires in times of peace, and when he did enter he would know that in a sense he was entering the public service and would therefore be subject to certain limitations and restrictions not applicable to purely private employment. He would be as free as any other citizen to change his occupation whenever he saw fit. He would understand, however, that no organization to which he might belong would be permitted to conspire to wage civil war on society and industry, and to enthrone anarchy in our republic. Civilized States have established executive and judicial machinery as a sub-

stitute for guns and bombs to protect the lives and rights of their citizens. The people have reached the conclusion that this gun feud between the carriers and their employees must stop, for two reasons: First, because the fatalities are too serious among the innocent bystanders, and second because the damage done by the combatants to each other is a matter of public concern. The time has, therefore, arrived when the people are compelled to say that the weapons of force and oppression that have sometimes been used by the railroads against their workers must be discarded and that the weapon of the strike, which has occasionally been handled with deadly effect by the employees against the railroads and the public, must be laid aside. This method of adjudicating a civil controversy is a modern revival of the ancient absurdity of trial by combat. The result of that sort of trial was not based on justice but on brute force. The mountain feudist in our own country who resorts to a rifle may locate his adversary, but he does not by that method locate the disputed boundary line over which the trouble arose.

The Court of Force is an unjust court. The strike is not a safe method of arbitrament. A justifiable strike may be lost, and an unjustifiable strike may be won. And then, in addition to the injustice that is wrought by the judgments rendered by the Court of Force, the costs incident to the trial are enormous and they fall with ponderous, staggering weight upon both litigants alike. The strike of the shopmen will cost this country, one way and another, a half billion dollars, but it will settle no dispute, it will answer no industrial question, it will solve no social problem, it will establish no principle of immediate or ultimate benefit to compensate labor for its fearful sacrifice.

On the other hand it will impoverish the participants and will bring vast suffering to the workers in other lines of industry by retarding prosperity and increasing the cost of living. It will tend to defeat its own object by diminishing the ability of the carriers to pay wages.

Our people should not temporize with this question. It is too vital and too far-reaching to admit of partisan bickering.

The Transportation Act of 1920 was a long stride in the right direction. Results have justified its enactment but uncovered its fatal weakness. Its provisions should be clarified where necessary to the safe-guarding of the rights of all concerned, and, above all, they should be made mandatory and enforceable. Then, if abuses develop in the administration of the law, let the ballot box be resorted to for redress.

This is a problem that cannot be solved by stagnant hesitation or timid retrogression. It calls for a forward movement.

VIEWS OF PRESIDENT HARDING

(From his address to Congress, August 18, 1922.)

The public menace in the coal situation was made acute and more serious at the beginning of July by the strike of the federated shop crafts in the railroad service—a strike against a wage decision made by the Railroad Labor Board, directly affecting approximately 400,000 men. The justice of the decision is not for discussion here. The decision has been lost sight of in subsequent developments. In any event, it was always possible to appeal for rehearing and the submission of new evidence, and it is always a safe assumption that a government agency of adjustment deciding unjustly will be quick to make right any wrong.

The Railroad Labor Board was created by Congress for the express purpose of hearing and deciding disputes between the carriers and their employees, so that no controversy need lead to an interruption in interstate transportation.

It was inevitable that many wage disputes should arise. Wages had mounted upward, necessarily, and justly, during the war upheaval, likewise the cost of transportation, so that the higher wages might be paid. It was inevitable that some readjustments were resisted. The administrative government neither advocated nor opposed: it only held that the Labor Board was the lawful agency of the Government to hear and decide disputes, and its authority must be sustained, as the law contemplates. This must be so, whether the carriers or the employees ignore its decisions.

Unhappily, a number of decisions of this Board had been ignored by the carriers. In only one instance, however, had a decision, challenged by a carrier, been brought to the attention of the department of justice, and this decision was promptly carried to the courts and has recently been sustained in the federal court of appeals. The public or the executive had no knowledge of the ignored decisions in other cases because they did not hinder transportation. When these failures of many of the carriers to abide by decisions of the Board were brought to my attention, I could more fairly appraise the feelings of the strikers, though they had a remedy without seeking to paralyze interstate commerce.

The law creating the Railroad Labor Board is inadequate.

Contrary to popular impression, it has little or no power to enforce its decisions. It cannot halt a strike, and manifestly Congress deliberately omitted the enactment of compulsory arbitration. The decisions of the Board must be made enforceable and effective against carriers and employees alike. But the law is new, and no perfection of it by Congress at this moment could be helpful in the present threatened paralysis of transportation.

Happily, it is always lawful and oft-times possible to settle disputes outside of court, so, in a desire to serve public welfare, I ventured upon an attempt at mediation. Those who had preceded in attempted settlements had made some progress. I submitted to the officials of the striking employees and the chairman of the Association of Railway Executives, in writing on the same day, a tenative proposal for settlement. Knowing that some of the carriers had offended by ignoring the decisions of the Board and the employees had struck when they had a remedy without the strike, I felt it was best to start all over again, resume work, all to agree to abide faithfully by the Board's decisions, make it a real tribunal of peace in transportation, and everybody serve the public. The barrier to be surmounted was the question of seniority. By the workmen these rights are held to be sacred, and unsurrendered by a strike. By the carriers the preservation of seniority is the weapon of discipline on the one hand and the reward of faithful employees on the other. It has been an almost invariable rule that when strikes have been lost seniority and its advantages have been surrendered; when strikes have been settled seniority has been restored.

In the tentative proposal which I sponsored, it was provided that everybody should go to work, with seniority rights unimpaired, that there should be no discrimination by either workmen or carriers against workmen who did or did not strike. I realized that the proposal must carry a disappointment to employees who had inherited promotion by staying loyally on the job, and to such new men as had sought jobs looking to permanent employment, but I wanted the fresh start and maintained transportation service, and I appraised the disappointment of the few to be less important than the impending misfortune to the nation. It was not what I would ask ordinarily to be considered or conceded, but at that moment of deep anxiety, with the coal shortage gravely menacing, I was thinking of the pressing demands of the welfare of the whole people. I believed the sacrifice brought to the men involved could be amply compensated for by the carriers in practical ways. I believed that the matter of transcendent importance was the acceptance of the proposal to respect the Labor Board's decisions on the questions which formed the issue at the time of the strike. The public compensation would be complete in guarding by law against recurrence.

The proposal was rejected by the carriers. Though the rejection did not end all negotiation, it left the government only one course—to call the striking workmen to return to work, to call the carriers to assign them to work, and leave the dispute about authority to the Labor Board for decision. When negotiation or mediation fails, this is the course contemplated by the law and the government can have no chart for its course except the law.

To this call a majority of the carriers responded favorably, proposing to re-employ all strikers except those guilty of violence against

workmen or property, to restore the striking workmen to their old positions where vacant, or to like positions where vacancies are filled; questions of seniority which cannot be settled between the employer and employees to go to the Labor Board for decision. The minority of the carriers proposed to assign jobs to workmen on strike only where the positions were vacant. Neither proposal has been accepted.

Thus the narrative brings us to include the developments which have heightened the government's concern. Sympathetic strikes have developed here and there, seriously impairing interstate commerce.

Deserted trans-continental trains in the desert regions of the southwest have revealed the cruelty and contempt for law on the part of some railway employees, who have conspired to paralyze transportation, and lawlessness and violence in a hundred places have revealed the failure of the striking unions to hold their forces to law observance. Men who refused to strike and who have braved insult and assault and risked their lives to serve a public need, have been cruelly attacked and wounded or killed. Men seeking work and guards attempting to protect lives and property, even officers of the Federal Government, have been assaulted, humiliated, and hindered in their duties. Strikers have armed themselves and gathered in mobs about railroad shops to offer armed violence to any man attempting to go to work. There is a state of lawlessness shocking to every conception of American law and order and violating the cherished guarantees of American freedom. At no time has the Federal Government been unready or unwilling to give its support to maintain law and order and restrain violence, but in no case has State authority confessed its inability to cope with the situation and ask for federal assistance.

Under these conditions of hindrance and intimidation there has been such a lack of motive power that the deterioration of locomotives and the non-compliance with the safety requirements of the laws are threatening the breakdown of transportation. This very serious menace is magnified by the millions of dollars in losses to fruit growers and other producers of perishable foodstuffs, and comparable losses to farmers who depend on transportation to market their grains at harvest time.

Even worse, it is hindering the transportation of available coal when industry is on the verge of paralysis because of coal shortage, and life and health are menaced by coal famine in the great centers of popuation. Surely the threatening conditions must impress the Congress and the country that no body of men, whether limited in numbers and responsible for railway management or powerful in numbers and the necessary forces in railroad operation, shall be permitted to choose a course which so imperils public welfare. Neither organizations of employers nor working men's unions may

escape responsibility. When related to a public service the mere fact of organization magnifies that responsibility and public interest transcends that of either grouped capital or organized labor.

Another development is so significant that the hardships of the moment may well be endured to rivet popular attention to necessary settlement. It is fundamental to all freedom that all men have unquestioned rights to lawful pursuits to work and to live and choose their own lawful ways to happiness. In these strikes these rights have been denied by assault and violence, by armed lawlessness. In many communities the municipal authorities have winked at these violations, until liberty is a mockery and the law a matter of community contempt. It is fair to say that the great mass of organized workmen do not approve, but they seem helpless to hinder. These conditions cannot remain in free America. If free men cannot toil according to their own lawful choosing, all our constitutional guarantees born of democracy are surrendered to mobocracy and the freedom of a hundred millions is surrendered to the small minority which would have no law.

It is not my thought to ask Congress to deal with these fundamental problems at this time. No hasty action would contribute to the solution of the present critical situation. There is existing law by which to settle the prevailing disputes. There are statutes forbidding conspiracy to hinder interstate commerce. There are laws to assure the highest possible safety in railway service. It is my purpose to invoke these laws, civil and criminal, against all offenders alike.

The legal safeguarding against like menaces in the future must be worked out when no passion sways, when no prejudice influences, when the whole problem may be appraised and the public welfare may be asserted against any and every interest which assumes authority beyond that of the government itself.

OPINION OF ROGER W. BABSON

The students of labor problems are divided into two distinct groups: one group believes in compulsory arbitration as illustrated by the Kansas industrial court, and the other group stands purely for conciliation without any compulsion. Conservatives and radicals can be found in both groups. Investigation leads me to believe that there is a field for both of these lines of work. Labor disputes in connection with general industries, such as the textile industry, the boot and shoe industry, and possibly the steel industry, should be kept on a conciliation basis. It surely would be a mistake to attempt compulsory arbitration in connection with these businesses which are operated solely for profit. The best means of avoiding trouble in these industries is by keeping these industries in two major groups, one group to be strictly "union"

and the other group strictly "non-union." Let the union group adopt the closed shop and let the other group be strictly non-union. Then let the two groups compete. I do not mean necessarily in production, but rather see under which system the public, the employes and the stockholders, all combined, are most prosperous. My own guess is that none of these three parties would long be healthy, happy and prosperous with all "union" or with all "non-union." When one group secures control, it becomes inefficient, careless and arrogant. My guess is that an industry would be most prosperous and all concerned in it would be rendering the most service and be happiest if the industry were equally divided into a union and a non-union field. So much for general industry. When disputes arise, only conciliation should be applied by a third party. There should be no compulsory settlements in such cases.

When, however, we come to transportation, fuel, public utilities, such as water, light and gas, or to the distribution of milk, bread, etc., we find a group of industries to which compulsory arbitration must be applied. The first two groups to which strong-arm methods will be applied are the railroads and coal mines. First let me say that the railroads and the mine operators are themselves largely to blame for present troubles. Although the owners of these properties are now behaving themselves, they have not always done so. Most of the unwise methods that labor leaders are using today were applied by the railroads and mine operators of twenty years ago. Hence these corporations now are only reaping what they have sown. Nevertheless, two wrongs do not make a right. Our nation must have transportation and fuel at a fair rate and the operation of its railroad and coal properties must be undisturbed by either labor leaders or stock market operators. Regarding the railroad situation; to secure a fair rate the interstate commerce commission * * * is functioning very well, and the struggle is now over the railroad labor board.

Experience has shown that boards consisting of three groups (one group representing capital, one group representing labor, and one group representing the public) do not function well. The group representing capital vote in one body for the corporations; the group representing labor vote in one body for the wage workers; this leaves the decision to the three men who represent the public. The problems involved are too great to permit leaving the decision to three men chosen more or less for political reasons. To have the railroad labor board or any other such board properly function, five, seven, or nine men should be selected who represent neither the corporations nor the wage workers, but who represent the nation. These men should be paid large salaries, given dignified positions, appointed either for life or long terms, and treated like the Supreme Court of the United States. These men should gradually build up a code based upon their rulings, seeking the advantage of no one group, but rather the welfare of the

nation as a whole, which in the end would be for the best interests of both the owners and the wage workers. The decisions of this board as applying to transportation, public utilities and similar conflicts, should be absolute and final.

Railroad owners are now willing to accept compulsory arbitration, but the labor leaders are not. Some claim the labor leaders are afraid of losing their jobs, but I do not believe this to be the reason. They appear to be honest in their belief that enforcing men to work for profit is only a form of slavery. Forcing a man to work in a steel plant which is operated for profit may be a form of slavery. If compulsory arbitration applied to all industry, we certainly would be reverting to slavery. When, however, it is applied only to transportation, public utilities, coal mining and one or two other industries, thus leaving the great field open, compulsory arbitration cannot be called slavery. I say this because under such conditions any man who did not wish to work for the railroads, the public utilities or the coal operators would be free to go into competitive industry to which compulsory arbitration would not apply. The labor leaders state they are willing to accept compulsory arbitration—as best exemplified by the Kansas industrial court—provided the railroads, public utilities, coal mines, etc., are operated by the government, not for profit. They illustrate their case by stating that this is the reason they are willing to be drafted for the army, because the army is operated by the government, and not by individuals for profit, and that this is why being drafted for the army is not a form of slavery.

This may be all right in theory, but the public is in no mood at present for further government operation. The results of the war, in connection with the operation of the railroads, the building and operation of ships and the various other interests in which the government took a hand, show that under present conditions government operation is expensive, inefficient and unsatisfactory. The public believes today that better organization, better discipline and lower costs come through private operation. The public further believes that private operation should continue so long as the present employes of the railroads, public utilities, and coal operators are not compelled to work for the owners of these properties but are free to leave them and work for other people, and so long as there are plenty of other men available and willing to work on the railroads, public utilities and coal mines under a system of compulsory arbitration.

In view of these facts, it seems to me that the public will not at present take seriously the claim of the labor leaders that compulsory arbitration applied even to industries operated for profit is necessarily slavery. If it were to apply to all industries or if there were not a group of men perfectly willing to work on the railroads, public utilities and coal mines under a system of compulsory arbitration, then there

might be some justice in the slavery argument. Today, however, railroad men are perfectly free to go into other lines of activity for which no compulsory arbitration is suggested, while hundreds of thousands of men are willing to work for the railroads, public utilities and even the coal operators under a compulsory arbitration system. How will such a compulsory system be put in operation in connection with the railroads, public utilities and mines? Possibly the people will be so irritated that Congress will with one swoop apply the Kansas industrial court idea to the railroads, public utilities and mines. I hope, however, this will not be done. The need of the hour is to have workers feel right. We shall never have efficiency and a reduction in the cost of living until those engaged in industry feel right toward their work. People never feel right when forced to do anything against their better judgment. Hence my forecast is as follows:

The railroad labor board's rulings will not now be made compulsory as to the present employes, but they will be compulsory on every employe who goes to work for the railroads after a certain date. Those employes who are now at work for the railroads came on a free, competitive basis and have done faithful work. Although theoretically then can change to some other job, yet practically they cannot. They know the railroad business and this is all they do know, and it isn't fair to say they can quit at their present time of life and enter a new field of work. Therefore I say that unless these present employes will voluntarily come under the compulsory arbitration system they should be free to continue as at present. But every additional man hired will be hired with the distinct understanding that he will conform to the decisions of the railroad labor board, as must the stockholders of such corporations. This would be perfectly fair and would bring about a result which would be gracefully accepted by all in the course of time. Under this system it would take a few years to bring about the desired result, but we would rapidly approach it from year to year, and when adopted it would have the full coöperation of all concerned. This is my forecast of the way that the problem will ultimately be worked out. Then there will be no more strikes on our railroads, nor in connection with the public utilities, mines, etc., when the same method is extended to include them also.

LABOR vs. THE PEOPLE

(Editorial in the *Independent*, July 22, 1922.)

At Fall River, Massachusetts, on the Sunday morning after the beginning of the railroad shop strike, the conductor of the boat train to Boston, fuming over delay due to insufficient pressure on the air-brakes, snorted out to a passenger's inquiry:

"I don't know when we'll start—thanks to the United States Labor Board"—and he added angrily, "There's got to be a labor war, and I don't know but it might as well come now. What's the matter? They won't give us no money."

This man belonged to one of the train service brotherhoods which have not yet met the second reduction from the peak wages of 1920, against which the shop crafts are striking. But his temper, especially as shown in other remarks which it is hardly fair to quote, is illustrative of the general temper behind both the railroad and the coal strikes. This man gave his most violent denunciation (and it was violent) to the idea of wage regulation by a Federal Government tribunal. Mr. Gompers and other officials of the American Federation of Labor have denounced the theory of the Railroad Labor Board from the moment it was proposed. They have opposed the idea that any body on which the public is represented should have any voice in determining wage rates. The Mine Workers, in refusing President Harding's proposed arbitration of the coal strike, are really standing on precisely the same ground. Organized labor demands recognition for its asserted right to settle wages by industrial warfare, regardless of who suffers by the conflict. In this present year of grace the railroad strikers assert the right to force wage concessions from the railroad managers by causing public loss and suffering through demoralization of interstate transportation. The striking miners, pointing out through their officials the loss and suffering that threaten from continued under-production of coal, propose to cause that loss and suffering unless their demands are complied with. Both of the striking bodies intend to enforce their demands by causing, or threatening to cause, a serious injury to the whole public.

This is clearly the case of labor against the people of the United States—of an attack by barely a million men upon the safety of more than a hundred million persons. It seems to us that the railroad strike is directly the consequence of the understanding with the coal miners that the latter would support a railroad strike; and that the refusal of the miners to accept arbitration is in large part a rendering of the promised assistance. Quite apart from the utterances of the leaders of the two organizations, it is evident from the facts of the situation that the two strikes play into each other. The greatest offset to the effects of the coal strike has been the production from the non-union mines of West Virginia and Kentucky. This non-union coal has a long rail haul before it can reach the markets which absorb it. The obvious way for the railroad men to support the rail-coal strike combination is by checking or preventing the transportation of this coal—and that result is already in evidence. If the shop men can cripple transportation of non-union coal, and if the miners can prevent the

mining of coal in fields near the consuming markets, something will presently break; and out of the smash each of the striking bodies hopes to get the substance of what it is demanding.

We think it the duty of the Federal Government, and equally of the people of this country, to see to it that this attack upon the safety of the country is immediately and signally defeated. We hope that before these words appear in print the Government, at least, will have begun vigorous and appropriate action. The public can begin to do its part by recognizing the true nature of the struggle, by backing up the Government in appropriate remedial measures, and by standing ready to give its own individual services to the railroads if that is necessary to maintain transportation.

In the matter of the railroad strike there has been a disposition both among the general public and in official Washingon to think that the Labor Board might find some way to a compromise. In our judgment the efforts that Chairman Hooper of the board has made in this direction weaken the position of the board, and are in their general effect unwise if not actually mischievous. The board took a sound position in its official statement regarding the strike. For any member of the board, "unofficially," to dicker with the strikers upon terms of settlement other than acceptance of the board's decision or withdrawal from the service of the roads, is to create "informal" obligations on the part of the board which the strikers would insist on its translating into official action. The public should understand that in the railroad strike the whole principle of Government regulation of wages and Government prevention of interruption in vital public services is at stake.

In regard to the coal strike, we hope the Government will not, as its intention is intimated to be, take over the actual control and operation of coal mines. Sufficient legal justification for such procedure might be found, but it is far less clear than in the case of railroad operation, and at the best, this course would lead into new difficulties that were better avoided if possible. We believe that a sufficient number of mines to prevent a serious shortage could be operated if the Federal Government guaranteed full protection to non-union workers in them, and held the authorities of the States to strict account for their share in the undertaking.

AN END TO NATIONAL RAILROAD STRIKES

(Editorial in the *Independent*, September 30, 1922.)

The collapse of the railroad shop strike, though it was perhaps somewhat hastened by the temporary injunction obtained by the Government, was really due to the steady resistance of the railroad executives, who remained united in their action until the crisis of the

struggle was successfully passed, and the supremacy of the public right to uninterrupted transportation had been decisively asserted. It is likely that the public will imperfectly appreciate how much it owes, both in present safety and in the outlook for the future, to this united action of the railroad executives during the critical stages of the struggle, and a word of comment is in point.

The real issue in the strike was whether a numerically insignificant minority should be allowed to stop the vital circulation of the economic body—its interstate traffic in the supplies necessary to its life—as a means of enforcing wage demands which had been denied by a Government wage board on which the barely two million railroad workers of the country had as great voting power as the one hundred and eight millions from whose pockets railroad wages must be paid. The "national strike" of the shopmen, like every other national railroad strike, was not only a blow aimed at the safety of the whole people—it was an open defiance of the Government's right and obligation to maintain the free flow of interstate traffic. This right was bestowed, and this duty was imposed upon the Government by the Constitution: Congress had provided in several statutes the mechanism for performing this duty, in addition to the powers which the Government possessed by the mere fact of its national sovereignty. The principle and the duty involved were clear. The Government should have asked, and it would have obtained from its courts on the day the strike began, the injunction which it did not ask until two months of increasing violence and interference with the railroads compelled it to act.

During these two months, when the railroad shopmen were acting in open collusion with the striking coal miners, the defense of the public right was left to the railroad executives, who were intermittently harassed by Government proposals for compromise which in effect would have sacrificed the essence of the principle the Government was bound to uphold unimpaired. The intention which prompted these attempts at compromise was as well-meant as it was practically unwise and unsound. The refusal of the striking shopmen to accept the element in the proposed compromises which would have brought upon them a penalty for striking at the public safety finally made it evident even to Washington that the issue was one in which no compromise was compatible with the public right. We are far from intending to offer a certificate of grace and enlightenment to all railroad executives indiscriminately. Railroad executives differ among themselves in courage, wisdom, and other qualities as much as did the tribes of Gaul in Caesar's day. But, "such as they are," as a body they saw clearly at the outset what the real issue was, and they stood up to the fight until the principle of the paramount right of the public had been vindicated. If some of them have finally betrayed themselves into

mischievous surrender, the judicious observer can only hope that the retribution therefrom will be as educative and reformative as it appears to be inevitable.

Judge Wilkerson's decision of last week, stating the relative rights involved in the strike, should establish in the minds of both labor leaders and the public the permanent conviction that strikes aimed at interrupting the interstate traffic which is the life-blood of the nation are unlawful attacks upon the public safety which it is the right and duty and fixed policy of the Government to suppress on that sole ground —that they are unlawful attacks upon the safety of the country.

Labor leaders have much to say about the "rights" of the worker, and it is of vital concern to all of us that the real rights of the workers, like the real rights of every other citizen, shall have full protection. But no one can have rights without also having duties, and the railroad strike has shown that some vigorous instruction on the duties of the worker is in order. Any one who undertakes a vital service—the railroad worker no less than the surgeon at the operating table—is bound by the highest obligation of duty to see that no act of inaction of his interrupts the performance of that vital service. The surgeon who would interrupt an operation to haggle with his patient's friends for a higher fee would be rightly denounced as a potential murderer. The railroad worker's duty is usually less clean-cut, and neglect of it less disastrous than in the case of the surgeon operating on a patient, but at bottom it is the same. He must make up his mind to adjust his assertion of his "rights" to the paramount claims of his duty to the public. The public, in compensation for this restriction of the worker's freedom, may fairly be asked to make good the economic disadvantages of this limitation. The Labor Board is an honest attempt to fulfil this public obligation. How it has proved just and adequate is too large a matter to discuss here.

Two aspects of the history of the strike deserve a word of appreciation. One of these is the very great technical efficiency of the railroads in moving a nearly record traffic in the face of the gravest material obstacles. The other is in large part the source of the first—the courage, loyalty to duty, endurance, and effectiveness of thousands of minor executives, from foremen up, without whose unflagging efforts the fight would have been lost. To most of us nameless, they have "deserved well of the Republic."

A DISASTROUS STRIKE

(Editorial in the *Philadelphia Inquirer.*)

The strike of the shopmen of the railroads is winding up with no gain whatever to those who left their jobs. It has been a disastrous strike—disastrous to all concerned. It lost the strikers something

like $100,000,000 in wages. It cost the roads a great many millions in decreased revenues because of a reduction in freight haulage. Perishable foods to the extent of many more millions of dollars in value could not be handled promptly enough to save them. There has been a deterioration of equipment. Destruction of property has been considerable. Twenty thousand affidavits collected by Attorney General Daugherty presented in court tell of murders, violence and threats of violence.

The strike was not against the railroads, but against the Railroad Labor Board, which after a long and patient hearing, had ordered a reduction in wages. The roads proceeded to fill the places of the strikers, promising protection to loyal men and newcomers. The great roads of the industrial regions recruited rapidly. Others of the west and south did not, but there has been no tie-up anywhere.

Long ago the strikers' representatives realized that their movement was doomed to failure. They were ready to send their men back at the wages which went into effect on July 1, but they insisted that these men should be restored to all of their seniority rights. No railroad official who had any self-respect and any regard whatever for positive pledges could possibly yield to such a demand. The result, now that an agreement has been restored, is that various roads will take back their old men, but will not discharge new employes. Thirty days are allowed in which to make room for them in their previous places. Seniority is not mentioned in the agreement. Disputes as to the relative standing of men, or any other controversy, will be referred to a commission composed of six representatives of the roads and an equal number from the shopmen's own organizations.

The arrangement is not universal. Individual roads will treat as such with the committees. Others, including the most powerful eastern corporations, remain outside of any understanding. For them the strike virtually has ceased to exist. They have procured nearly all of the men they need, hence the shopmen's unions in entering upon this individual agreement have abandoned to their fate many thousands of former employes.

And that is not all. Four roads have organized "company unions" —the Pennsylvania, the New Haven, the Delaware and Hudson and the Jersey Central. These corporations will settle all questions within their own organizations.

This is the beginning, apparently, of a formidable movement for "home rule." The splendid success of the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company in building up a loyal and contented force of employes presents an example of what can be accomplished when corporations and men work in harmony.

MR. GOMPERS RESORTS TO TRICKERY

(Editorial in the *Greensboro News*, November 1, 1922.)

Mr. Gompers betrays the lack of thinking that has afflicted labor leadership in the past year or two when he assails the labor board for having put a "stigma on the intelligence of Congress" in attacking the "living wage" demand. Congress has directed the board to find what is a "just and reasonable" wage, and Mr. Gompers immediately vaults over the difficulty by asserting innocently, "surely anything below a living wage is not just and reasonable."

And right there Mr. Gompers resorts to trickery. From the wording of the sentence one would think that he believes that under no circumstances could anything less than a living wage be also a just and reasonable wage. Yet he is too intelligent a man to be laboring under any such delusion. Mr. Gompers knows perfectly well that many and many a labor organization has cut the efficiency of its members so low that they are not justly and reasonably entitled to a living wage. When a brickmason calls laying 300 bricks a day's work, he is not entitled to a living wage, because he hasn't done a real day's work. When union rules require several mechanics to make repairs on a locomotive that one man could easily make without assistance, the members of those unions are not entitled to a living wage, because they are needlessly multiplying jobs.

A man is not entitled to a living wage until he has earned a living wage, and he cannot earn it by racking his brains to devise ways and means of soldiering on the job. Some American labor unions and labor leaders have recently fallen into the error of believing that the prosperity of labor can be advanced by limitation of production. That error has been the curse of England these many years; yet, although England was for decades a richer country, per capita, than the United States, limitation of production never raised the English workman's standard of living to the American level. It never will. On the other hand, limitation of production can and will drag down the standard of living of American labor to the English level.

If the American workman draws twice as much pay as the English workman, it is because he does twice as much work as the Englishman and consequently is worth the extra pay. And that is the only way in which he can make himself worth it.

If there is a difference between a "just and reasonable wage" and a "living wage," the labor board didn't create the difference, nor did Congress; it was created by inefficient and lazy workmen, and by nobody else.

RAILWAY WAGES AGAIN

(Editorial in the *New York Times*, October 31, 1922.)

The Labor Board has increased the wages of trackmen two cents an hour. Even the labor member joins the majority, for the reason that, although the increase is too small, it is better to accept it than to risk a strike and failure to get anything. The increase is indeed smaller than most would like to see this reasonable union receive. It gets, however, more than the nominal increase. The shopmen lost $177,535,524 wages by striking. They lost also their standing with the public. The trackmen have received $147,656,856 wages which they would have lost if they had struck, and they have gained the place in public esteem which the shopmen lost.

The gain to the public by avoiding a trackmen's strike is great. Experience has taught the necessity of supporting the Labor Board. It has only moral authority, but that usually suffices. If the unions are conceded a monopoly, the result will be the substitution of economic war for forms of arbitration so mild that only fanatics can reject them. Repeatedly it has been shown that the workers are more reasonable than their leaders.

More important than the wage decision is the rejection of the "living wage" theory. Its renewal before the board is a confession of failure to carry the point on economic or patriotic grounds. The "living wage" is urged on the ground that families are larger than the census shows, that there are more children to the family than anybody else can find and that there are less wage earners to the family than actually exist. Moreover, the alleged family "budget" is fanciful, and it cannot be shown that families either do or would manage their affairs according to it. If the theory were conceded, it would benefit about one-fiftieth of the population by imposing on all the rest of us a railway deficit of $2,241,639,618. From the standpoint of the taxpayers, the price is too high for what the board says is a phrase of "mellifluous phraseology calculated to deceive the unthinking." The law requires a "just and reasonable wage." People will think it fortunate that the board stands between them and the labor insatiables who propose economic absurdities on a basis of false ethics. It is really not ethical to pay wages not earned and transfer the burden to others.

References–Negative

COMPULSORY LABOR IS SLAVERY

(Address of SAMUEL GOMPERS, President of the American Federation of Labor, before the General Assembly of New York, March 30, 1920.)

Strikes are not the desirable thing, any more for the men and women of labor than for any other men or women in this great Empire State, or in the United States. But, my friends, there are some things worse than strikes—a demoralized, a degraded, a servile working people in any community is a greater calamity than a strike can be. I repeat that strikes, in so far as possible, consistent with freedom and justice, should be avoided wherever possible. But I ask you to consider this fact—whether it is true that strikes are the natural expression of the working people against injustice, against tyranny, against a deterioration in their condition.

One would imagine in this hysterical campaign conducted to make strikes unlawful, illegal, that the State of New York, that the State of New Jersey, that the State of Kansas, that every State in our Union is practically, industrially and humanely, as well as commercially, bankrupt and destroyed. It is true that we may not have made progress as fast as we should like to have made it, but the truth is that the productive power of the people of our country, both as individuals as well as in their collectivity, is greater than that of any workers or group of workers in any country on the face of the globe. If strikes among workers governed and regulated by a constructive, militant and patriotic labor movement, are an evil, then we might expect to find in this country industrial chaos and financial panic, with China, where they have no strikes, standing at the head of civilization today.

You will find that discontent and unrest prevail in other countries. There you will not find its manifestations in the orderly conducted strike. You will find its manifestations in a deeper and a more disastrous fashion than in a strike. As against the attitude of Governor Allen in his advocacy of the enactment of a law to make strikes unlawful, I prefer to align myself with the immortal Lincoln, who, in 1860, declared in Boston, "Thank God we have a system of labor where there can be a strike! Whatever the pressure, there is a point where the workingman may stop."

The working people of the whole civilized world have had a continuous struggle through the ages, from slavery to serfdom and from serfdom to our modern industrial system. There was a time when

workmen were owned body and soul by their owners, their masters, the barons; when workmen were regarded as the property of their owners; when courts held the rightful power of the master to own his workers. They were sold with the land or without it. If workmen left their employer, their master, their owner, the land was searched and if they were recovered they were returned and the letter "V" was branded upon their forehead with a red hot branding iron, indicating to themselves and their fellows and the world that they were villains. If they escaped the second time and were recaptured, they were branded upon their forehead with a red hot branding iron with the letter "S," denoting to the world that they were slaves. If they escaped the third time, and were captured, they were hanged to the gibbet and upon the charge that they were guilty of robbing their employers of their labor.

In our own country, the people and the government of our Republic waged a four years' bloody war that human slavery should be abolished from our land for all time, giving the four million negroes of 1860, and before, freedom by Lincoln's proclamation, later sanctified by the enactment of the Constitutional Amendment proclaiming that human slavery and involuntary servitude should be abolished in the United States and should not exist in any of the colonies or states within the jurisdiction of the United States.

Is there no meaning; shall there be no lesson to us in all that is going on in the world? Is there to be no guiding principle in our course. The Civil War, with its great sacrifices on both sides, one for the maintenance of human slavery and the other for its total abolition and the maintenance of our union—are these to have no lessons for us in our time?

What, in effect, is the real purpose of this Kansas law and Governor Allen's advocacy of its enactment in the State of New York?

The Kansas law provides that a court of industrial relations shall be established, the court consisting of three judges appointed by the Governor by and with the consent of the Senate. Three judges? I do not know how many lawyers there are in the Legislature of the State of New York; I have not had time to inquire. But evidently three experienced lawyers in the legal profession will sit as judges in this industrial court. What extraordinary qualifications have the lawyers of the State of New York or Kansas? What extraordinary talent and understanding have they of the industrial life of the people in the factories, the mills, the workshops or the mines and elsewhere?

I have a great respect for the legal profession, for its wonderful attainments, but I do submit that when we undertake to inquire into the technique of industry, the relations of workers, the masses of the workers, to the employers, that the point of view of the lawyers, the members of the legal profession, has not been sympathetic or intelligent in dealing with this subject. The training, the environment, make

that practically impossible. And then, diverting just for a moment, there are so many of us, rich and poor, when we undertake to give our children an education, we are so prone to see to it that our boys and our girls shall know nothing of industry and the preference is given almost exclusively to the study of the professions and that it is regarded too much as an indignity for the sons of men to earn their bread by manual labor or by the sweat of their brows.

The court, as established by the Kansas law, has the right to summon witnesses, administer oaths, to examine papers, books and all else, with all the force and power legislated to any other court of competent jurisdiction, and then make such award as the court may decide. If the award is in favor of the workers, the employers must pay whatever increase has accrued from the beginning of the inquiry until its final adjudication. If the employers do not respond, the workers may bring suit before the courts of the State and after trial and an award is given by a jury, the increased wages may be collected if there be anything to collect. If the award of the court is against the workers and a reduction of wages is ordained, then the working people must pay to the employer the increase of wages which has been received from the time that the hearing began until the decree was made; and I submit to your consideration the condition of a large body of workers who have had, say, wages $1 a day more than the court has fixed and having had a month or two or three or more in the enjoyment of that $1 a day, they would be able wonderfully to respond to the decree of the court. But in the meantime, the workers must not engage in any movement of any kind which looks to the cessation of work. They must work whether their interests warrant, whether their fancy warrants. If they desire to leave, to collectively improve their condition, they are forbidden by the Kansas law to do that.

Now what does that mean for workers? The law has taken from them their right of ownership of themselves; they must work whether they will it or not; they must work by order of the law, by order of the court, and failure to work involves the penalty of a fine of $1,000 or more and a sentence of a year, or both such fine and imprisonment. In other words, when workers refuse to give their service, they must perform it whether they like it or not, and the government with all its power stands behind such a law, compelling men to work.

What is the difference between a slave and a free man? The slave must work whenever his master directs; he can not refuse to work; he must work—that is slavery. The difference between the slave and free man is that the free man may stop work—cease work—own himself. If he suffers as a consequence of his refusal to work, he suffers, but he is a free man to do as he pleases with his labor power—the only thing that he possesses, the only thing that he owns and controls—his labor power—the thing that can not be taken away from him without taking him.

Are we in the State of New York ready to reverse the policy of our entire existence as a commonwealth—aye, before our statehood and before the Union was formed? Was it not New York that stood as a great factor before the Civil War began in a movement for the abolition of human slavery in America? Were we not abreast with Massachusetts and the other New England States in the advocacy of the abolition of slavery? Are we, through a fad, to abandon this splendid position of standing for the right of humanity and for freedom and for justice, simply because there has grown up in the minds of some of our people the thought that the workers of the country are to be torn down from the position which they have obtained in this year of grace?

The working people of the United States are free men and women; they are sovereign citizens; they are no longer to be represented by the idea as embodied in that picture entitled: "The Man With the Hoe." The bent back and receding forehead have been obliterated and the men and the women of labor of our country stand erect, equal sovereign citizens with every other man and woman in our State and in our country, and we deny the right, and we protest against any attempt on the part of any one or group of men, to take from us the freedom which we have won, the position which we have obtained, the high ideals to which we aspire to make this country of ours the most productive, the richest in material things, the richest in heart and conscience and aspirations for a better life day by day, day by day as time goes on.

May I just call attention to the fact that I had the distinguished honor to address the Legislature of New Jersey in joint session just as I now have the honor of addressing this great body today. It was two weeks after Governor Allen had addressed the New Jersey Legislature; and because of the fact that it was published in the newspapers that I would have the pleasure to which I referred, I received several letters in my office and one at Trenton, the capital of New Jersey, on the day that I addressed the Legislature. One of the letters was handed to me just as I was about to ascend the rostrum. Two of them I had read and one of them was closed and in my pocket. The two letters which I had read that day and the one which I received later entered into a technical discussion of the bill.

I shall not attempt to present the thoughts which were in those letters, nor those which came to my office, but two of them dealt with the procedure of the court of industrial relations, involving three men. Appeal was made to the court, February 4th, and a month and twelve days later the hearing opened and lasted the greater part of three days. It took a week for the testimony of twenty-four witnesses to be transcribed from the stenographic notes, at the conclusion of which the judge announced that a decision would be rendered March 31st, or

practically two months after the application was made. My friends, in the orderly procedure of the relations between employers and employes, a case of three men, a case of 1,000 men, 10,000 men, 100,000 men, would have been adjusted in a day or two or three. If the Court of Industrial Relations in Kansas is to continue to function as in its first case, with its expensive and ponderous machinery, in the course of a year the court will be about two years behind.

The principal thought however, to which I desire to attract your attention is that this idea is a reversal of the fundamental principles upon which the Republic of the United States is founded; that it involves compulsory labor, a position and a proposition inimical to our progress, inimical and dangerous to the institutions of the United States. The men and the women of toil of our country have organized a body, voluntary in character, in method and practices, an organization in which we feel the responsibility which rests upon us and the moral duty we owe to our fellows and we have not been unmindful of our duty. In the great war for the abolition of slavery and the maintenance of the Union, American workers gave their all that slavery should be abolished. Now the whole country is shouting with glee and glorification that slavery does not exist in the United States. It has been my good fortune to travel considerably throughout our country. I have met with the men of affairs as well as the men of labor of the Southland, and there is not one who does not glorify in the fact that slavery was abolished. Prosperity of our people, the people of the Southland, progress—material, commercial, in every form and manner possible—has come to them with greater attainments and happiness.

If in our time the United States of America, based upon the fundamental principle of freedom and democracy and voluntary action, and voluntary fealty to the undying principles of American justice and freedom, had deteriorated; if our people had become degraded; if our people had failed to perform their duty and service; if we had lagged in the race of the human family, there might be some justification for the re-establishment of human slavery.

But we have made wonderful progress in material things, in all things, and occupy a position of tremendous influence not only in our own country but in the affairs of the world. Our people are brainy, brawny, energetic, with the genius of invention and understanding and a large and constantly growing vision for a better day. If these were absent, it might cause us to pause, but they are acknowledged facts of current knowledge. In the time of our nation's greatest struggle in the last war, the representatives of the men and women of labor met in conference three weeks before the President of the United States presented before the Congress of the United States his indictment against the Imperial Government of Germany and laid bare the murderous policy and acts. After a day's discussion in the preparation of its

proposals, it gave to the world and brought to our government the understanding that, come what may, whether we were permitted to follow the pursuits of peace or if we were dragged into the maelstrom of the European war, American labor would stand faithfully by the Republic of the United States, and upon all fields of activity would give our loyal services to the extent of human ability.

And better than that declaration, the essence of which I have just stated, American labor kept the faith and made good. I think that it is not unfair to assume that it brought comfort and encouragement to the people as well as the government of our country and made it plain that, notwithstanding the divergency of nationalities, so far as labor was concerned, the government need not be apprehensive at all, for we were back of the government with our lives if necessary and our great productive power to feed, clothe, equip and supply our soldiers at the front and the civilian population at home. We gave that unstinted support as fellow citizens as well as workers. The crimes committed by the German autocratic government were such as aroused the people of the United States, but is it not true that aside from the brutal crimes of the German government, we fought for our own rights to live our own lives; that we fought against this autocracy of Germany which was undertaking to overawe and dominate the people of the world, our own included? And we submit, gentlemen, that after making our declaration and making our sacrifices and giving all to our government to fight autocracy abroad, we protest against the attempt to establish industrial autocracy at home.

In the address of Governor Allen before the Legislature of New Jersey, he spoke of the strike of the coal miners, and he stated the manner in which he solved that problem. I shall not dispute with him his statement, but surely it was not solved by the law of Kansas which was enacted subsequent to the strike. May I say this, too? Laws to make strikes unlawful will not prevent them. You may make men criminals, send them to jail, but that is not going to stop strikes. On the contrary, I know of no measure or no means better calculated to provoke strikes and resentment than such a measure. So long as men are men and have an inspiration for something better, a better life, so long will they stop work in one establishment and seek work elsewhere, if they can not obtain the satisfaction of their just demands in the original place.

I speak not as one who has graduated from the great mass of labor. I have had the experience of working for 26 years at my trade, and I know what it means to work at the bench or in a factory, and I know, too, that it is usually and generally the desire of workers to continue in the employment of a firm or company. Changing from one place to another is irksome and uncomfortable; and speaking of my

own experience with my shopmates, I know that men who left some other establishements and came to work in the factory in which I was working, felt very uncomfortable, at least for the first few days or week. I know this of my own experience, although I did not make many changes during the period that I was working at my trade. Men prefer to remain in one employment for a long period of time rather than to make change without just cause. Men do not strike for the fun of the thing. They quit their jobs because they regard themselves as unjustly treated and because the reward given to them for their services is totally insufficient and wrongful.

We hear now of some superficial declaration that the high cost of living in the United States is due to increased wages being paid the working people. The fact of the matter is that the statistics of our government show that the cost of living has increased 85 per cent since 1913 and that during that same period the increase in wages has amounted to about 52 or 53 per cent. In other words, the $1 which the workers earned in 1913, as compared to the $1 now received by them, means a reduction in their wages of nearly 35 per cent.

I appeal to the Legislature of this State, the great State of New York, not to burden the statutes with such a proposition as is contained in this bill, or any of the bills that are now before this body, whether a counterpart or copy of the Kansas law, or of any similar character. Do not attempt to govern by law the relations of employers and workers. We shall do our duty by you, by our people and by our country. We shall do anything and everything within our power to see that the relations of employer and employe are the best possible to be obtained. We can not make them better by law. Good will must be earned by employers and good will then will be shown and given by employes. Every right, courtesy and consideration shown to workers will find its impress and reflex upon their minds and upon their conduct. Our workers are not disloyal. They know what this means. They know what the Republic of the United States means to them. They know and they revere and love the institutions and the ideals of America. Do not, I appeal to you, do not belittle in their minds or jeopardize that great respect and reverence and hope that they have for American freedom and American justice, with all that it means to them and the generations that are yet to follow.

INVOLUNTARY SERVITUDE

(By SAMUEL GOMPERS, President of the American Federation of Labor.)

Compulsory arbitration in Australia and New Zealand, where it has been enforced for twenty years, has proved a failure. The following is a quotation from a speech made in the Federal Parliament of Australia by Prime Minister Hughes in March, 1920:

"The industrial question, looked at from one point of view is the result of eternal conflict between the classes. Looked at from another point of view—and, I believe, the right one—it is the inevitable consequence of modern civilization and modern methods of production and distribution.

"I confess that I have no remedy at hand. This house has been a laboratory of industrial experiments. I listened to Alfred Deakin introduce the arbitration and conciliation bill in a most glowing speech, and I feel now as I felt then that along the lines then outlined mankind ought to walk, abandoning the crude barbaric methods of industrial warfare. Years have passed and this perfect piece of legislation has turned out to be, despite every kind of minister in office, the most inefficient and hopelessly futile effort to solve the industrial question that ever came out of the laboratory of any industrial workshop. Even the president of the court from time to time indulged in gloomy jeremiads and has been torn with pangs of despair.

"It is a court the approach to which is marked by barbed-wire entanglements. At the very threshold of its portals is an almost bottomless pit, and those who by happy chance find their way into the court wander aimlessly about, and at last come out almost without knowing it and saying, 'What are we?' or 'What has happened?' It has frequently been necessary to strike in order to get into the court, which was designed to prevent industrial strife! Law-abiding unions which had been waiting patiently have then been pushed aside, and the others have gone in and come out full to repletion. The jurisdiction of the court has been riddled again and again by High Court judgment."

Among the associations that have persistently fought the trade unions with every step in their progress and which have never made a secret of their antipathy to the trade unions and the principles for which they contend is the Illinois Manufacturers' Association. Nevertheless Mr. Door E. Felt, who was its president, in December, 1920, delivered a speech before the National Association of Employment Managers, in which he said:

"In studying the industrial history of England, I am rather discouraged respecting much that is being advocated; for instance, compulsory arbitration.

"I am very well acquainted with Mr. George S. Beeby, Minister of Labor for New South Wales, Australia, where labor legislation has been carried further than in any other place in the world, involving a complete system of wages boards and courts for the settlement of industrial strife instituted and now in operation since 1901. Mr. Beeby is the author of the present law. He tells me that, instead of reducing industrial strife, under laws which forbid strikes, industrial

strife and strikes have increased. In fact, the time lost on account of industrial disputes in New South Wales was six times as great in 1917 as in 1913.

"In one of our recent bills in Congress, there was a proposition to forbid strikes on the part of public employees—in this case railroad employes. I am not in favor of that, because the experience with such laws in Europe has been a failure. It is a good deal like plugging up a volcano—sooner or later you have an explosion that is greater than anything that would have happened had the vent been open all the time.

"After the Black Death—The Great Plague—I think that was in 1347—there was a great scarcity of labor, something similar to the present. Laws were passed forbidding labor organizations and strikes. The first one was passed in 1351. It didn't do the work, so from time to time more severe laws and penalties were enacted, until they finally got to the point where those that struck were worked in chain gangs, and some were branded with hot irons.

"I have never found a case where laws forbidding strikes were effective. In the early middle ages under conditions of extreme ignorance and serfdom, it seemed to work for a time, but in the end it always failed."

It will thus be seen that the man best informed as to the working of compulsory arbitration laws in Australia and the president of an anti-labor association of manufacturers in the United States are both of the same opinion as to its impracticability.

Statistics showing the percentage of union men in the different trades are not available but about seventy per cent of the wage earners of the United States are organized. Of the eight million who are eligible to membership in the trade unions, five million five hundred thousand have joined.

If Congress should provide for the enforcement of the decisions of the Railroad Labor Board, that would not be compulsory arbitration. It would be litigation, and if the railroad employes refused to abide by the decisions, they could be fined, sent to jail or both. It would be involuntary servitude which is a violation of the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States.

THE FAILURE OF RAILROAD ARBITRATION

(Editorial in the *New Republic*, September 20, 1922.)

The futile thunderings of Mr. Daugherty and late indications of the approach of at least some kind of a settlement on the railroads, have torn from the public mind the last remaining memory of the agency which was charged two years ago with the duty of preserving peaceful

relations between railroad operators and their employes. The arbitral settlement of industrial differences is, however, too important to permit this dismal collapse of the Railroad Labor Board to pass unnoticed. Perhaps a suggestion of the causes of its failure will help to prevent the organization of boards like it in the future.

The successful arbitration of industrial disputes is the business of experts. It requires an intimate knowledge of the custom and practice of industry. Where the parties to arbitration are each organized in trade unions and employers' associations, the arbitrators must have a nice appreciation of shifts in power and in the strategic position of both parties. The arbitrators are engaged in manipulating an exceedingly delicate and sensitive balance. They must know when threats to use force are real and when they are not. While they may often invoke abstract principles of social justice, the wise and practiced arbitrators are aware of the fact that a peaceful settlement rests on their understanding of what in practice each of the litigants will or will not accept. Both trade unions and employers' associations are often foolishly led and make preposterous and unwarranted demands on each other. But it is only rarely that both have not measured their own strength accurately and sensibly long before the clouds of battle have begun to gather. What they know about their own desires and intentions, a board of arbitration must make every effort to learn, before it even ventures to decide the issues that have been submitted to it.

Arbitration, as we know it in organized industries in this country, moreover, is no more than the voluntary submission to third parties of issues which union and employer cannot settle among themselves. In the typical arbitration proceedings, organizations of workingmen and of employers are universally conceded positions of equal standing. No arbitration machinery has ever been successful in this country or elsewhere, which has deliberately set about by means of its decisions to whittle away the power of either employers' association or union. As long as the arbitrator contents himself with the maintenance of the prevailing balance of power, he is successful and peace rules in the industry. No sooner, however, does he see in arbitration an opportunity to apply his own prejudices and inclinations to industry and proceed to decide so as to weaken the one or the other side, than he is doomed to failure. The wise arbitrator values peace and uninterrupted service by industry more than his personal preferences. He may be an ardent advocate of the open shop and of individual bargaining in the intimacy of his home, but as an arbitrator under a closed shop agreement he rules in consonance with the terms of the agreement and with the expressed or implied sentiments of those who made it.

Tested by standards of arbitration such as these, the Railroad Labor Board has been a total and tragic failure. It failed first because it was

unwilling to accept the actual and practical status of unionism in the railway industry. Its point of departure was not the union standards prevailing in the railroad industry in 1920 and thereafter, but the non-union and open-shop standards existing where unions were weak and uninfluential. In place of interpreting those forces peculiar to the transportation industry and translating them into the decisions of the board, it constituted itself a court of liquidation or of receivers and proceeded to write decisions that could have as their effect only the weakening and liquidation of the railway labor movement. Wherever past industrial practice on the railroads afforded standards of labor relations, the board disregarded them and sought their standards in industries where liquidation of labor was most drastic and least difficult. In no unionized industry in the country, and indeed in few non-union industries, was liquidation attempted with such severity and with such a disregard of conditions as on the railroads. Practically on five different occasions, and in the short space of less than two years, the Board ruled against the railway unions. The exhibit of these rulings is in itself sufficient to convict this board of arbitration of an appalling lack of understanding of the conditions that make for industrial harmony. The decisions of the board, as indicated in the following rough tabulation of its major rulings, did not only reduce wages and lengthen hours, but also struck at the very heart of the strength of the railway unions:

1. The first wage cut.
2. The second wage cut.
3. The abrogation of national agreements.
4. The modification of overtime rules.
5. The modification of piece-work rules.

Where tribunals of voluntary arbitration in private industry moved cautiously and timidly, made slight reductions in wages, did not disturb the hours of work, and kept intact the accumulated powers of the labor organization, this public agency cut ruthlessly into wages, hours, working rules and union power, with a fine disregard for precedent, prevailing conditions, and for the future of arbitration in the railroad and other industries.

The failure of the Railroad Labor Board is not, however, limited to its procedure during the peaceful period of its existence. Its greatest and most eventful blunder it made on the eve of the present railway strike, when it met the threat of a strike with the counter threat of outlawing the strikers and their organizations. The board did not have the excuse that the issue raised by a threat to strike was new in industrial relations. It is, in fact, impossible to recall an important strike in the United States in which the first steps taken by the employer were not to outlaw the strikers, to declare the strike ended, and to throw all conceivable types of safe-guards about strike-

breakers and non-union workers. It is the employer's method of breaking a strike. It is a method he employs for undermining the spirit and morale of the workers. It is not, however, the method that arbitrators employ in their attempts to make an adjustment and to restore peace. They do not associate themselves with the employers and give aid and comfort to the strike-breakers. Before the strike actually begins and even while it is in progress, a practiced board of arbitration forgets its dignity, disregards the fact that its authority has been flaunted by the strikers, and carries on negotiations with them. For when all is said and done, in those industries in which workers have a semblance of strong organization, the final settlement, when it is made, is made between union and employer and not between occasional and temporary strike-breakers and employer. These plain facts of record and of experience, known even to casual students of the labor movement, the Railroad Labor Board saw fit to overlook, just as it had overlooked the balance of power on the railroads before the strike. To members of the railway unions and to their sympathizers these actions of the Board, following so close upon its past decisions, mean only hostility to trade unionism and to the practices of organized labor. Unfortunately the record of the Board justifies these feelings.

The American public is now paying the cost of the ignorance and ineptitude of its public servants. The pity of it is that this signal failure of arbitration will have its effect, as it already has, not on the railroads alone, but on all industries in which voluntary arbitration has struggled so long and so effectively to obtain a footing.

FALLACIES IN ANTI-STRIKE LEGISLATION

(By JOHN A. FREEMAN, in the *American Federationist*, November, 1922.)

Several public men of more than local reputation, as well as a number of independent and other newspapers, have directly or indirectly declared themselves converts to the gospel of compulsory arbitration of industrial disputes. Some of these converts profess to be conservative and old-fashioned Americans; they certainly claim to be good and patriotic Americans. Governor Nathan L. Miller, of New York, is one of the new converts we have in mind, and Senator Calder, of the same great industrial and commercial State, is another. Elihu Root, ex-Senator, is another.

Doubtless, if one were to tell them that their espousal of compulsory arbitration is incompatible with good Americanism, with loyal and patriotic devotion to essential American principles, they would be shocked and amazed. Yet that is literally true. They are not good Americans, they are not conservatives, they are not followers of the revered fathers, when they urge and demand compulsory arbitration.

For that sort of arbitration is repugnant to the Declaration of Independence and to the Constitution. They are revolutionary and destructive radicals without knowing it.

Without knowing it, we say, but they have no excuse for their ignorance, their failure to perceive their inconsistency and disloyalty to the Constitution.

Compulsory arbitration is irreconcilable with liberty and personal rights. It means the reintroduction of involuntary servitude. The right of an individual to resign or quit a job is not enough to make him independent and free. He needs the additional right of coöperation with his fellows, the right of collective bargaining and collective quitting.

Now, if the men and newspapers that are so intolerantly and vehemently demanding anti-strike legislation have really decided to join the Socialist-Bolshevik party, to scrap Americanism, to defend tyranny and slavery, they are within their legal and moral rights in advocating such a revolutionary departure. But what shall we think of their reasons, their arguments? What is it that makes them so ready and willing to throw American principles overboard?

The stock arguments employed by them may be briefly summarized thus:

1. The nation is supreme, and no group, combination or interest can be allowed to override the authority of the State. When, therefore, a strike is ordered, or continued, against the wishes and orders of the State, it becomes a sort of insurrection. As such it must be put down, and like insurrections must be prevented by drastic legislation.

This argument is utterly fallacious. It begs the very question at issue. Freedom being guaranteed by law, the men who strike and refuse to surrender at the bidding of a President, or Governor, are in no sense insurgents or usurpers of State authority. They are exercising their rights and they get these from the constitution of the free, democratic State. To talk, then, about a State within a State, or overriding the State, is to talk nonsense.

2. The community must not be deprived of food, fuel or necessary services. It must not be subjected to suffering—to cold, hunger and the like.

The answer to this argument is that the community is better protected by freedom than it would be by slavery or governmental tyranny. Under freedom strikes take place occasionally, and they may cause hardship, but under slavery and tyranny production and other services would be so inefficient and wasteful that the public would always suffer want and misery.

Freedom has its price, and strikes are part of that price. The price of slavery would be infinitely greater. Education, reason, experience

and other factors are working under freedom to make strikes less and less necessary. But so long as strikes are a necessary weapon, freedom-loving men will fight for the right to strike.

3. Society has rights, as well as labor and capital. What becomes of society's rights when labor or capital strikes? Is not society entitled to equal protection?

The answer to this argument is that, like the first, it is question-begging. Of course, society has rights, but freedom offers the best protection of these rights in the long run. The right to strike is the right of each citizen to work or not to work for this or that employer. It is not a class privilege. It is a corollary from a general principle, one of value and importance to all healthy, national members of the body politic. If freedom is better for each individual in the long run than dependence and subjection, then freedom, with all its occasional inconveniences, is better for society in the long run than regimentation, tyranny and bureaucratic intermeddling.

4. The individual worker would be free to strike, in any case, and only collective action, organized and regularly financed strikes, would be prohibited. This would not be slavery, but "wise regulation."

The answer to this claim is that the individual right to quit work is a delusion and mockery in this age of ours. The individual is helpless. To be free, he must have the right to coöperate with others, to act in concert with others, to maintain efficient organizations and accumulate resources. Would business men or farmers accept serious limitations upon the right to coöperate, to form trade associations, to sell and buy collectively? The right to organize implies the right to act through and by the organization, on a wide national or international scale. An assault, by law or injunctions, on collective bargaining and strikes under union direction and union leadership, with funds to support strikers, is an assault on the right to organize for any vital purpose or in any effective way.

Now, if the impartial reader will critically consider the editorials, articles, speeches and interviews in which anti-strike legislation is advocated, he will perceive that all of them base their proposals on some, or all, of the arguments we have analyzed. If these arguments are unsound, the case for compulsion collapses. Loud, tall and aggressive talk about public interests should not deceive the intelligent and freedom-loving citizen, whether he is a wage-worker, a farmer, or a professional man.

It is interesting to quote here from an address made recently before the Philadelphia Chamber of Commerce by U. S. Senator George W. Pepper, a lawyer of ability and learning. Senator Pepper was discussing industrial developments, and he sounded the following note of warning:

"Let us not make frantic appeals to government and force to work the miracles which we do not deserve. Let us put no trust in industrial coercion. Let us make no appeal to the court beyond the barest limit of protection to life and property, and let us never make an appeal, even in these cases, by a covert method of imposing upon the courts an impossible jurisdiction over all industrial happiness and welfare."

Senator Pepper is a conservative Republican. His apprehensions are significant. Opposition to industrial coercion and tyranny should not be left to union labor and advanced Liberalism. Conservative Americans who have not lost their heads, and who can think straight, should pause, inquire, and seriously consider the effect and implications of the revolutionary proposal to prohibit strikes directly or indirectly.

LABOR DISTURBANCES ARE DIMINISHING

(By ROGER W. BABSON.)

As a matter of fact, we have very few strikes at the present time. Ever since the war the strike curve has been below the point which was then called normal. The fact that we have had three strikes of large dimensions blinds us to this basic truth. Two of these strikes, the coal strike and the rail shopmen's strike, are in industries which have not been deflated, so far as war time wages go. The other, the cotton textile strike, has been partially deflated and the trouble is about going the rest of the distance. The difficulties in these three industries are then cases of belated hostilities.

For the most part labor is not striking, wages are being gradually let down to lower levels and the disposition of men is to keep at work. There is always a rise in the strike curve during the summer. We are having that rise now. Nevertheless, we are not having the number or the wide distribution of strikes which we had last year or at any time since 1915. We will not have a repetition of those conditions this year. The strike curve is nearer normal than almost anything else in industry.

As to the future, the answer is to be looked for in conditions. What made the tremendous wave of strikes which marked the years 1915 to 1920? The simple fact that there were more jobs than men; that the cost of living was going up; that labor was in a position to force the issue. No such prospect is in view for the years right ahead. Therefore, we need not look for a repetition of the strike conditions of the war days. Those days are passed. Nevertheless, we are going to have strikes. There are reasons other than the ones that backed the strikes of war time. Then men went on strike for more pay. They were courageous, confident, buoyant. They were sure of success. They were seldom disappointed. In the future just ahead, they are

going to strike against wage cuts, against attempts to rule out the unions. They are not going to be as successful as they were in the war time strikes.

In consequence of this the real question of the next few years is as to the frame of mind which labor is going to have. In contrast with the buoyant confidence of the war years, labor is going to be sullen, resentful, revengeful. What they do not gain in open victories, they are going to be disposed to accomplish by indirect means. A man who cannot get his pay raised can stall on the job. He can get the best of his boss by all kinds of nasty tricks in the factory.

These are short-sighted policies. In the long run they work to the disadvantage of labor. Still, they are the usual recourse of labor when it is met by obstacles that do not yield.

Right here is the problem of the employer of the next few years. How shall he meet the new temper of labor? In my opinion that ugly temper must be met by open dealing, by setting before labor the facts under which business is done and by admitting labor progressively to a greater share in management of the elements of the industrial relation which most directly concern labor. That is to say, the time to develop personnel departments, set up profit-sharing, organize shop committees and all of the rest of the things that belong to this class is, not when labor is in the saddle and holds a gun at the employer's head, but when the employer himself is in the saddle and is in the position to dictate terms.

The employer does not have to take this reasonable course, if he does not want to. He can use these next years to pile up trouble for himself and his successors in days to come. If, however, the employer is wise, he will take advantage of his position to set up the best kind of machinery, with which to defend himself and his industry. It is not a question of strikes in the immediate future. It will be a question of sabotage. Sabotage, however, is worse than strikes. It demands its own treatment.

In view of these conditions, investors should give more thought to the labor policies of the companies in which they purchase securities. An examination of corporation earnings shows that the labor policy is the great determining factor between profit and loss during normal times. This especially applies to various concerns in the same line of industry. They all pay approximately the same price for raw materials; they all have practically the same hours of work, but one company succeeds and the other fails. Statistics show that the difference is very largely due to their labor and financial policies. Therefore, conservative investors will seek securities of companies which have a broad-minded labor policy, and which are now developing plans which will be of use when the next period of prosperity comes. Ice cannot be gathered in the summer, but must be

put up in the winter when it is not needed. The same principle applies to labor. Labor troubles are very difficult to settle when they occur. Wise manufacturers prepare, during such times as these, preventative measures so that labor troubles will not occur when times are good.

PUTTING TEETH INTO ARBITRATION

(Editorial in the *Saturday Evening Post,* September 16, 1922.)

The country would best think twice before it responds to the growing demand to put more teeth into labor boards. They can be made effective upon the employer because he can be haled into court and fined or imprisoned, but they cannot be forced upon labor organizations because these immediately dissolve into individuals who stand upon their constitutional right to labor or not as they may individually elect; and if some thousands choose to take a vacation at the same time there is no power even in their own organizations, and certainly not in the courts, to drive them back to work.

Even if compulsory arbitration could be made to work it is still true that any wage scale which should be set up by authority would be a first step in fixing prices; and if one craft is to be guaranteed a legal wage, why not another and another? And if craftsmen are to be guaranteed an advantageous wage, then what shall be said to the farmer when he plants and harvests in good faith and asks a guaranteed price also? And if he is guaranteed a price, who is to see to it that somebody shall be at hand to take the crop at the legal rate? Or if that is not feasible, then who will regulate the amount that the farmer may be allowed to plant and how shall he go about the job of doing it?

No, we must deal with labor either as individuals or as organizations, one or the other, all the time; not as one or the other from time to time as leaders or followers may elect. If we are to deal with organizations, then in line with recent court decisions they must be responsible for damage done when they block enterprise necessary to the lives and welfare of the people, even if their leaders must be held under conspiracy laws when they combine in ways to coerce society to obey their mandates as the price of being provided with the necessities of life. For it would be no worse for the farmers to starve the world into submission by withholding food at the point of production than for the railroads to do it by blocking transportation or for the miners to freeze it and paralyze it.

Not even wisdom teeth can solve the labor problem by force; but whoever claims rights must accept corresponding responsibility, and that goes far toward sobering the situation. It is irresponsible power such as has existed nowhere else on earth since monarchies were abol-

ished that is wrecking our industrial life and even threatening the authority of representative government.

A strike among the firemen of a great city is unthinkable, and yet the total damage likely to be done by fire, even if all the firemen in the country should go on strike and picket against firefighters, could not be greater than that which is bound to arise from a concerted railroad and mine strike if carried to the bitter end. Yet the firemen have as many and as sacred rights as have shopmen or the miners.

The right to strike and prevent others from working in an essential industry is not an inalienable privilege in a free country, for its logical conclusion is anarchy and civil war; and we are very close to the time when the chief labor problem will be that of maintaining a government free from the dictation of a powerful but irresponsible super-government set up by a class and operated for its special advantage over other classes.

Power without corresponding responsibility must come to an end in labor matters and in all other human relations.

THE SANCTION OF PUBLIC OPINION

(Editorial in the *New York Times*, July 18, 1922.)

Senator Cummins corrects the report that in his opinion the Esch-Cummins Transportation act enables the Railroad Labor Board to enforce its decisions, and that both the railways and the unions can be compelled to obey it by injunction or mandamus. The strike has brought him back to the position which Congress rejected when the bill was enacted. He thinks there should be amendments making the Board's decisions enforceable "by providing penalties against conspiracy among railway workers and also fines and imprisonment penalties against railway officials for violating the Board's orders."

As there might be several hundred thousand conspirators, it would be impracticable to imprison them all, and invidious to imprison a selected few. If many were jailed, the problem of finding railway labor would remain to be solved. The difficulties created by the strike are not sufficient reasons for recasting the Transportation Act.

The proposal to insert in it a requirement that the men shall be guaranteed a living wage is superfluous and a reflection on the award of the Labor Board. The Labor Board could fix only a nation-wide standard of wages, and Senator Cummins himself thinks that undesirable. The Transportation Act contemplates regional, or even individual, contracts and regulation for both rates and wages. The Transportation Act may be imperfect, but the Senator proposes no real betterment of it.

He does not by his proposal to imprison railway officials who disobey the Labor Board. They would have to be proved guilty first. The railway officials themselves are ready to respond to the summons which the strikers disobey. There are scattered cases in which the railways have complied with the Board's requirements, after refusing, and there are cases in which the railways have by due process of law challenged the Board's right to make given decisions. The railways and the unions have equality of right to challenge the Board's procedure. Strikes are not substituted for court process in enforcement of statutes.

Senator Cummins is right in his assertion that the railways should be served by willing workers, and that the way to get them is to provide protection for those willing to work under the Board's award. That is, in effect, a plea that the Board's awards should be supported by public opinion. Such is the sanction originally provided by the Transportation Act. There is no other and none better. The Labor Board has made mistakes and created difficulties for itself, but it has worked hard, and on the whole done well. The public should support the Labor Board.

GOVERNOR MORRISON'S MESSAGE

(Message of GOVERNOR CAMERON MORRISON, of North Carolina, to President Warren G. Harding, July 19, 1922.)

Your wire of yesterday received last night. There is very little mining in this State and so far as I know there are no strike troubles in this industry. It would be a vain thing for me to invite coal miners to return to work in this State, but I would not do so anyway. I am truly sorry that a judgment long formed and repeatedly expressed heretofore in my State prevents my agreeing with your position as set forth in your telegram. I deem the whole policy of national and State governments trying to adjust labor disputes unwise. It always forfeits the confidence of the side to such a controversy finally decided against by the government and creates suspicion of the impartiality of its exercise of police power. I believe the full duty of the government and the part of wisdom is to uphold the law with fairness, impartiality and permit parties in industrial disputes to fight the economic battle to a finish. Your position is practically to use the power of the government against the strikers, and in the enforcement of police regulations and the upholding of the law the strikers will naturally have little confidence in the impartiality or fairness of soldiers or other agencies of force directed by a government which has taken a decided stand against them, however good the reasons for such a stand may be. I will elaborate my views in a letter mailed today which I earnestly hope you will do me the honor to read. There will be no trouble in North Carolina in upholding the law in this or any

other controversy. I am quite sure I will not need Federal forces to aid me in the position I have taken of non-interference with either side in such controversies except to uphold the law and keep the peace and protect every would-be worker, union or non-union, from menace, insult and violence. In this position I have the united support of practically the entire citizenship of the State. I deeply sympathize with the great burden of responsibility upon your shoulders and truly regret that I cannot join you in an invitation to the miners to return to work, which is practically taking sides in the controversy. I hope under no circumstances in this or any other controversy will you use military force in this State until after conference with me. We will not need it, as the forces at my command are adequate, and will be used to protect the humblest laborer, union or non-union, in this State in his every legal right. If I should be mistaken in this, although I am sure I am not, I will instantly call upon you for aid.

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A list of publications containing valuable material on the query under discussion is given below. The books and magazines can be secured from their publishers. Included in the bibliography are the names of a number of organizations and bureaus which will be glad to furnish material as far as they are able.

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The University Extension Division of the University of North Carolina will furnish material in addition to this bulletin, such as it may be able to obtain from time to time. Address Library Extension Service, Chapel Hill, N. C.

The North Carolina Library Commission will furnish traveling package libraries on the question upon the request of the principal of the school. Address Miss Mary B. Palmer, Secretary, Raleigh, N. C.

Debaters' Handbook Series—"Compulsory Arbitration of Industrial Disputes." This contains 250 pages, or more, of arguments and references on both sides of the general question of the compulsory arbitration of industrial disputes. Published by the H. W. Wilson Company, 958-964 University Ave., New York, N. Y. Price $1.25. This company will also be able to furnish articles bearing on the query, clipped from current issues of periodicals.

House Document, No. 2117, 64th Congress, second session, "Railway Strikes and Lockouts." A study of Arbitration and Conciliation Laws of the principal countries of the world providing machinery for the peaceable adjustment of disputes between railroads and their employes, and laws of certain countries for the prevention of strikes. United States Board of Mediation and Conciliation. Superintendent of Public Documents, Washington, D. C.

The North Carolina Senators and Representatives in Congress may be able to furnish from Congressional sources some material on the query.

Governor Henry J. Allen, Topeka, Kansas, may be able to furnish some material bearing on the Kansas system of industrial courts.

The American Federation of Labor, Washington, D. C., may be able to furnish some material bearing on the negative side of the query.

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UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA EXTENSION BULLETIN

HOW FARM TENANTS LIVE

J. A. DICKEY and E. C. BRANSON

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA PRESS
CHAPEL HILL, N. C.
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EXTENSION BULLETIN

HOW FARM TENANTS LIVE

By J. A. DICKEY and E. C. BRANSON

A SOCIAL-ECONOMIC SURVEY IN
CHATHAM COUNTY, N. C.

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA PRESS
CHAPEL HILL, N. C.

WHO WILL SOLVE THIS PROBLEM?

Our tenant farmers—courageous, honest, patient and long-suffering—when shall they see light? When shall their burdens be lifted? In the spring time they go forth, and with our brothers in black set their hands to the plow. They bend their backs to the burden, and when the frost falls they have added $1,000,000,000 to the wealth of the world. But small, indeed, is their share and meager their recompense. Every two years, according to the government census, they move from one place to another.

They build no homes, they live in rude huts, no flowers about their dwellings, no trees to shade them from the sun, consumed by the summer's heat and chilled by the winter's cold, no lawns about their houses, no garden fences; and with the accursed cotton plant crowding the very threshold of their rude dwellings and thrusting its limbs into their very windows, their lot is indeed pitiable.

Their sons and daughters come to manhood and womanhood, desert the farms and are lost in some distant community. Finally, when their pilgrimage is over, they are laid to rest in the rude churchyards of the country, others take their places and continue the fight. They have established no permanent homes, their kith and kin are scattered far and wide, and the places that knew them once know them no more forever.

I have no word of criticism for men like these. I know them, I have lived among them. I sprang from them. Who will lead these men out of the wilderness of their troubles? Men whom they elevate to high offices in the state and nation are ever ready to teach them politics, but they are not prepared to help them solve their problems of life. A fearful responsibility rests at this time upon men in authority and men in high offices. Will they heed it?—Joseph T. Holleman.

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OUR LANDLESS MULTIUDES

North Carolina has twenty-two million idle wilderness acres, a hundred thousand vacant town and city lots, and a million three hundred eighty thousand landless, homeless people, town and country. Almost exactly one-third of our white farmers and two-thirds of our negro farmers own no land. The people who live in rented dwellings in our towns and cities are from two-thirds to three-fourths of the various municipal populations.

These are the people in North Carolina who own not an inch of the soil they cultivate nor a single shingle in the roofs over their heads. They are fifty-two per cent or more than half the entire population of the state.

Enduring social structures cannot be built on land-ownership by the few and land-orphanage for the many. Civilization is rooted and grounded in the home-owning, home-loving, home-defending instincts.—E. C. Branson.

INTRODUCTION

1. The schedule of the North Carolina Club at the University of North Carolina in 1921-22 covered the various phases of Home and Farm Ownership—Town and Country, and week by week the University News Letter carried to the press and the people of the state brief summaries of the Club reports, discussions and conclusions. The Club Year-Book will soon be going into the mails, and in twenty-two chapters will give to the public these studies in full detail.

2. In December 1921 the State Board of Agriculture appointed a State Farm Tenancy Commission consisting of B. F. Brown, Chief of the State Marketing Bureau, Chairman; Clarence Poe, member of the State Board, and editor of the *Progressive Farmer;* C. C. Taylor of the State College of Agriculture and Engineering; W. C. Jackson of the State College for Women; and E. C. Branson of the State University. The three state institutions named were asked to collaborate with the State and the Federal Department of Agriculture and to conduct field studies of farm tenancy in three typical farm territories. These surveys were made in the summer months of 1922, in compact areas of (1) Edgecombe, a cotton county in the East, (2) Chatham, a diversified farm county in the mid-state, on the edge of the cotton-tobacco belt, and (3) Madison, a mountain county that for fifty years has been developing the evils of tenancy farming in a territory almost exclusively white in population. The surveys were under the general direction of Dr. C. C. Taylor, who is now summarizing the results for the State Tenancy Commission, which in turn will report its findings and conclusions to the State Legislature through the State Board of Agriculture.

3. The particular responsibility of the State University in these surveys was Chatham county which lies within easy distance of the campus. The University surveyor was J. A. Dickey of Alamance county which adjoins Chatham. Mr. Dickey is an A. B. graduate of Elon College, an A.M. graduate of the University, and during his university year an active member of the North Carolina Club. Both the survey purposes and the farm folk surveyed were familiar to Mr. Dickey. He was born and reared on an Alamance county farm. All his life he has lived among the farm people in the hill country on the edge of the fall line of the state. His courses in rural social-economics at the University were directly aimed at his summer survey task, and his field work was done with rare insight, sympathetic understanding, and unfailing tact. Mr. Dickey is now a research fellow of the Cornell College of Agriculture, at Ithaca, N. Y.

4. In keeping with formal resolutions of the Tenancy Commission before the survey began, the North Carolina Club at the University has used the data assembled in Chatham county by Mr. Dickey for a Year-Book chapter on The Social Status of Our Farm Tenants. It is the phase of farm tenancy that the Club has been most interested in. We have therefore considered the economic data in brief and only as related in the

largest way to the social estate of John Smith—Tenant. The economic summaries and significances of the surveys in the three counties will be found in detail in the forthcoming report of Dr. Taylor covering all the counties studied and all phases of the study.

5. The conclusions and recommendations of this particular chapter concern Chatham county tenancy in Baldwin and Williams townships, and convey to the public the best thinking of the North Carolina Club. Which means that we are purposing to relieve our collaborators of responsibility for the utterances herein—and possibly, of embarrassment.—E. C. Branson, *Chairman of the Steering Committee, North Carolina Club.*

HOW OUR FARM TENANTS LIVE

I

The Money They Live On

What about marrying on $20 a month—really on $6.00 a month in money, the balance of your cash income being held back till the end of the year? On a money income of that sort, do you think you'd have the nerve to set about establishing a home, sheltering, feeding, clothing, and safe-guarding a family in sickness and in health, and giving the children a decent chance at life?

I shoved these questions at a young college graduate on the train the other day—a cotton buyer in a flourishing cotton-belt city.

He looked at me in amazement. Kidding me? said he. Looks like it. I'm getting $200 a month, and I can't get married. I'd be a fool to marry on any such income. It couldn't be done in my town.

But, said I, this is exactly what fifty-one farmers have had the nerve to do in one small corner of a mid-state county in North Carolina. Thirty-eight of them are tenants, who handled in 1921 a household average of $250.64 in cash in the run of the year or just a little more than $20 a month. Thirteen are croppers with a household average of $153.27 in cash or a little less than $13 a month. And they are not negro farmers. They are white farmers—tenants to be sure, but native born whites of your race and mine.

How in the name of the Holy-Pink-Toed Prophet do they do it? he said. By which epithet, I gathered that he had been chumming with Cappy Ricks o'nights around the office stove.

Well, said I, they have no house rent to pay—that's everywhere free in this blessed land of cottontots; and no coal bills, for fire-wood is still abundant and free on every farm in North Carolina. Their grocery bills are small, because the farm itself furnishes from three-fourths to four-fifths of the food they eat—vegetables, milk and butter, poultry and eggs, and a little home-raised pork. And then they have various fruits and game in season, by grace of their landowning neighbors or the free gift of the fields. The landlords want their share of the corn and the cash-crop money, but everything else the tenants produce is freely their own. They have plenty to eat and wear, sheer existence considered. It is impossible to starve or freeze in the country regions of North Carolina. God Almighty made the state to be a paradise for poor folks.

He came back at me promptly. But, said he, they need money for shoes and head-wear; they need money for doctors, midwives and dentists, for prescriptions and patent medicines at the drug store, for the contribution box at the church on Sundays, for taxes and insurance, for gas and oil, for chewing tobacco and snuff and a cigar once in a while, for gun shells and fishing tackle, for school books, newspapers and victrolas, for

movies, ice-cream cones and bottled drinks, for fairs, circuses, and street carnivals in the occasional trips to town.

Sure, I said. And after paying the family bill for bread, bonnets and paragoric, how much do you think they have left for social servants like teachers, preachers, and doctors, for social institutions like churches, schools, and colleges, for state and county treasuries, and for petty self-indulgences?

They couldn't have much ready money left over for any such purposes as these, said he. After paying my room rent, cafeteria charges, haberdashery bills, bootblack and barber fees, pressing-club dues, newspaper and magazine subscriptions, and various inescapable incidental expenses, I had only $150 left over last year, and the doctors got every cent of that before I had any chance to spend it on a good time Christmas. I didn't wind up the year in debt, but I was barely on the safe side of the deadline. I think I did pretty well, better in fact than most of the fellows. But as for getting married on $200 a month—nix! I'd be an idiot to do it.

But, I said, on a money average of $20 a month these fifty-one white tenant farmers not only kept themselves and their families alive, but twenty-five of them were out of debt at the end of the year. And more, they have actually accumulated $23,277 in personal property—in work-stock, farm implements, household goods and utensils, automobiles, guns, and dogs; and their debts all told were only $4,100. Debts counted out, they are nearly $20,000 ahead of the game.

Well, all I've got to say, he replied, is that they are some financiers! They've got more sense than I've got. If you are giving me straight dope, don't ever again let anybody talk to you about stupid, lazy tenant farmers.

But say, said he, how do these people live? How do they keep soul and body together on an average of thirteen to twenty dollars a month in money? What are their standards of living? What are their notions of comfort and culture? They are not starved nor even half-starved in body, you say, but they must be wholly starved in mind—halt and maimed and blind in spirit! What can they look forward to? Can they ever hope to be anything but underling farmers, disadvantaged and under-privileged, they and their children and their children's children to the remotest generation?

All of which are tremendously important questions. They concern 63,487 white farm tenants in North Carolina. With their families they number 317,500 souls, or nearly one-fifth of the entire white population of the state. Who are these people? Why are they farm tenants instead of farm owners? On what level do they live? What are their hopes and fears? What chance have they to rise out of farm tenancy into farm ownership?

A Close-up Study

John Smith—Tenant, is a piteous figure, as MacNeill's pen gives him to us in the *News and Observer*. But John Smith, the Wayne county tenant who took the first prize for diversified farming, at the state fair last year, is quite another story. We know much about this or that tenant farmer, but in the South we know almost nothing about our white tenant farmers as a class. And landlords know much about the tenant farmer as an economic factor in the business of farming, but they know very little about him as a social and civic asset or liability in community life and commonwealth development. In cold figures we know nearly all there is to know about farm tenants the country over—the number, the ratios, the types, and the increases or decreases in each state since 1880; and, in recent years in certain closely surveyed areas in the South and Middle West, cold figures have told us much about their farm practices, their labor incomes, and the havoc they work upon soils and farm buildings. But we know much less, in most states nearly nothing, about the tenant as a human being—his home life, his church and school interests, his habits and hopes, and the part he has played in lifting or lowering the level of civilization in his home community. We have reckoned him in dollars and cents; we have not yet appraised him as a home-maker or as a community builder or destroyer in free American democracies. We have known very little about him as a citizen and we have cared less—or so until very recently in this and other states.

What we need is a close-up study of the 317,000 souls in the families of the white tenants of North Carolina. And it must be a keenly sympathetic study or we shall fail to understand and interpret aright the facts we find.

The Tenancy Area Surveyed

In order to supply this need, at least in part, Mr. J. A. Dickey, an A.M. graduate of the State University, spent the three summer months of 1922 in 329 farm homes of Baldwin and Williams townships in the northeast corner of Chatham county. They were the homes of practically all the farmers of this small area—the homes of owners and tenants, white and black.

Chatham is a mid-state county situated along the Fall Line, on the eastern edge of the Piedmont region of the state. The cotton and tobacco counties of the Coastal Plain adjoin it on the east and south, and on the north and west lie the grain, hay, and forage counties of the state. It is a land of rolling hills, abundant water courses, and rich bottom soils—a natural livestock region. The fertility of the soil is attested by the fact that in the olden days it was the seat of a slave-holding aristocracy. Neither slavery nor tenancy ever flourished in poor soils anywhere in the South. There were 729 slave-holding families in Chatham in 1860. Only six counties of the state had more slave-holders and only sixteen contained more slaves. Nevertheless there were in Chatham nearly 1800 white families who owned no slaves. They outnumbered the slave-owning

families more than two to one.* Many of these non-slave-holding families in Chatham owned small farms on the poorer soils of the ridges; some were artisans—carpenters, blacksmiths, shoemakers, tailors and the like; some were farm laborers getting $75 a year and board—rarely ever more; some were renters and others were overseers on the slave plantations; most of them were illiterate—the exceptions were few, and all alike belonged to a lower social estate. The negroes called them "pore white trash." Today the descendants of these 1800 families are almost entirely the farm owners of the county. Their trend has been steadily upward these last sixty years. The aristocracy of the old slave plantation died out or moved away long years ago. Hardly a vestige of the old social order remains. The history of Chatham since the war, like that of many another remote slave county, is the story of a middle class rising slowly and clumsily into democratic self-rule.

The county was long without railroads. Even now the middle and upper half of Chatham lacks railroad facilities; and only within the last eighteen months are the public roads of the county beginning to attain to the standards of modern life. In the remoter corners of Chatham, as in Williams and Baldwin townships, country schools are poorly housed and poorly supported. Here the little one-teacher school is still the rule. Local school taxes for consolidated schools and transportation trucks are only just now being considered. Aside from Bynum, a little cotton mill village of forty-odd dwellings in the southeast corner of Baldwin township, there are no towns or villages in this area. The farmers are settled in solitary dwellings (only three to the square mile) as almost everywhere else in the rural South. The thirteen roadside stores, the ten schools, and the twelve churches are the centers of country neighborhood life for whites and blacks alike.

Without convenient market facilities, the farms have naturally been devoted in the main to bread-and-meat production for home consumption. Cotton and tobacco are the small money crops. Corn, wheat, oats, potatoes, milk and butter, poultry and pork are the abundant staples of existence. The farm population is upstanding and sturdy, robust and vigorous. The signs of degeneracy are rare, and I say this having in mind the natives left in the farm regions of the North and East.

But the money the farmers handle from year to year is too little to encourage them to place their schools and local public roads on a basis of liberal tax support. The county is an area designed by nature for diversified farming and well balanced farm systems, but the farmers of Chatham must devote themselves to money crops in larger measures. This fundamental fact cannot be too greatly emphasized in this report. It is the outstanding economic necessity revealed in this study. No farm system can be a satisfactory basis for progressive civilization unless it have

* The ratio of non-slave-holding to slave-holding families was roughly three to one in North Carolina as a whole, and in the twelve slave-holding states of the South. Of the 126,000 white families in North Carolina in 1860 only 35,000 held slaves; and of the 1,273,000 white families in the South only 355,000 families were slave-holders. Data abstracted from the 1860 census.

money products in abundant measure. The farmers must have markets for their money crops and ready money in circulation far beyond anything Mr. Dickey found in the northeast corner of Chatham. Without a larger volume of ready money for daily needs, the landowners, tenants, and croppers of the two townships surveyed have a poor chance to keep step with the rest of North Carolina.

Living on 23 Cents a Day Per Person

The survey figures are startling. The total gross money income of the 329 farmers of Williams and Baldwin townships in Chatham county in 1921 was only $144,041, and of this grand total $27,162 was produced by work on public roads, bridges and buildings—much of it by work on the buildings under erection on the campus of the State University, by casual labor at odd jobs in the nearby towns, by state and federal pensions, allotments and the like.

In detail the gross money income figures are as follows:

ALL FARMS	Sale of Farm Products	Other Cash Income	Total Money Income	Average Per Family
135 white owners	$ 72,218	$12,325	$ 84,553	$626.24
41 negro owners	18,706	3,002	21,708	529.46
102 negro tenants	17,867	8,396	26,263	257.49
51 white tenants	8,077	3,439	11,517	225.80
329 farmers	$116,868	$27,162	$144,041	$437.81

The average per person in these 329 farm families was only 23 cents a day! The cash in circulation in the homes of the fifty-one white tenants was only twelve cents a day per person, only fourteen cents a day per person in the homes of the negro tenants, only thirty-two cents a day per person in negro farm-owner homes, and only thirty-four cents a day per person in white farm-owner homes!

Here certainly is life reduced to its very lowest terms in money. How could anybody, black or white, live on less money and live at all? How can white tenants on a daily cash income of twelve cents a day per person ever buy and pay for farms of their own? They do it—fifty-seven of the white farm-owners of this particular territory have done it during the last twenty years. And on fourteen cents a day per person, thirty-four negro farm renters and croppers have risen into farm ownership during the same period. The average cash income of tenants in this area has probably been less than fifteen cents a day per person throughout this entire period. They do it, but how they do it passes understanding. And moreover they have done it by self-effort alone. Not one of these ninety-one farm owners, of either race, received his land by inheritance, gift, or marriage.

Can this record be beat in any other state of the Union? This is what I have in mind when I say that God Almighty made North Carolina to be a paradise for poor folks—that is to say, for the average poor man content with merely keeping soul and body together in the country regions.

But for the poor man who aspires to own his own farm the state is a purgatory. If the farm is ever paid for, it must be paid for in pinching self-denial, in the field work of his wife and children, and in the lack of school advantages, newspapers, magazines, and noble books. How could it be otherwise on an average money income of fifteen cents a day per person?

The figures of average daily cash income on the farms of these two townships in Chatham county are a cue to the cash farm incomes of North Carolina in general. The averages are larger in the all-cash-crop counties of the cotton and tobacco belt proper, at least in exceptional years, but all in all our farmers everywhere handle too little money in the run of the year; and their surpluses even in the best years are too small to serve as any safe basis on which to build a commonwealth. Here is the reason why the accumulated personal property of white tenants averages only $526 per family, only $426 per white cropper family, only $409 per black renter family, and only $123 per black cropper family!

The same facts explain why the accumulated wealth in farm properties—farm land, buildings, livestock and implements alone—was only $567 per country inhabitant in Chatham county as a whole in 1920; and only $684 the state over.

These are pitiful figures when contrasted with $1,836, the average wealth per farm dweller in the United States as a whole, with $7,260 in South Dakota, and with $8,113 in Iowa.

There is too little ready cash in circulation in the country regions of North Carolina and too little accumulated wealth. Until both are multiplied many times over, the twelve hundred thousand farm people of North Carolina are a mired wheel in our civilization.

The state as a whole is rich, but our farmers are poor—in Chatham and in every other county of North Carolina.

The farm homes studied by Mr. Dickey were the homes of white farm owners, negro farm owners, negro renters and croppers, and white renters and croppers. In the main, this chapter is concerned with the 51 white renters and croppers. Not that we lack interest in the negro tenants and croppers, but because these negro farmers are working out their own salvation in most amazing fashion—in Chatham just as everywhere else in the cotton-belt South, at least in every area where the blacks are thinly scattered among white majorities.

Thus Mr. Dickey's studies concern a small section of the large problem of white farm tenancy in North Carolina and the South.

Economic Classes and Levels

1. *The Farm Owners.* The land of these two Chatham county townships is owned by 176 landlords—135 white and 41 black. Their accumulated wealth in 1921—in farm lands, buildings, livestock, implements and machinery, household goods and utensils and other personal properties—was $624,642 for the whites and $93,856 for the blacks. Which is an

average of $4,627 per white farm owner, and $2,407 per black farm owner. Thirteen of them run small roadside stores. All but sixty-one are active farmers, living on and cultivating a portion of their lands and letting out the rest to renters and croppers. Twenty are absentee-landlords living in other counties—mainly in Chapel Hill. Much or most of the land of the farm owners is lying idle, because farm labor has drifted into the cotton mills at Carrboro, Bynum and elsewhere, or is getting better wages at public work on roads, bridges and buildings, or in hauling, jitney driving, and odd jobs of various sorts in nearby towns. Farming in these two townships is at a low ebb, for lack of renters, croppers and wage hands.

2. *The Tenants.* The tenants number 153—white 51 and black 102. The ratio of tenants to all farmers is therefore 46.5 percent or nearly half, against 35.8 percent in the county-at-large, and 43.5 percent in the state-at-large. The 51 white tenants have accumulated personal property amounting to $23,277 which is an average of only $456 per family. The 102 black tenants hold property amounting to $31,430, an average of $308 per family. The families of the black and white tenants, as you see, are not very far apart in worldly goods.

The tenants of both races fall into two classes, namely renters and croppers. The white renters are 38 and the white croppers are 13. The black renters are 66 and the black croppers are 36.

All the tenants are farming under one-year contracts, and all the contracts are informal and unwritten. Tenant leases in writing are nowhere common in the South.

(1) *The Renters.* A renter is a tenant who owns his own workstock and farm implements—enough to 'run himself,' as the phrase goes. As a rule he pays three-fourths of the fertilizer bill and gets two-thirds of the corn and three-fourths of the cash crop money. All of everything else the renter produces, except the cotton seed, is his. The details and ratios vary a little here and there according to what the renter furnishes and also according to the fertility of the farm. The renters are the upper-crust of the tenants, the top of the pot, as they say in our farm regions. They rank next to the landlords in the ownership of property—mainly personal property. They own something more than their household goods. In a small way they own the tools of their trade, and enjoy a fairly large measure of independent self-direction. I may add that tenant and renter are interchangeable terms in Chatham and generally throughout the South.

(2) *The Croppers.* A cropper is a tenant who is staked by the landlord—is 'run by the landlord,' in the common phrase of our country regions. He owns little or nothing but the simple things in and around his cabin. Usually he owns no workstock and no farm implements, or not enough to count in the year's bargain with the landlord. Everything is furnished by the landlord—land, dwelling, firewood, workstock, implements, and from time to time small advances of money and pantry supplies to help him produce the crops. He pays half the fertilizer bill and gets half the corn and the cash crop money. Everything else except the cotton seed is his. Against the cropper's half of the crop money, the landlord charges

the cropper's debts for advances and the cropper's share of the fertilizer bills. Croppers are 'havers' (halfers) as the phrase goes, with little or nothing to invest in farming except the bare labor of themselves and their families. They are so called because they get not two-thirds or three-fourths of the corn and the cash crop money, as in case of the renters, but only half. As in case of the renter, the cropper's rent details vary somewhat on different farms.

Croppers are distinctly the under-crust of the farmers in the South—the bottom-rail, the under-dog, in country phrase. They are a type of farm population that is almost unknown in the North and West, but they have been a most significant fact in Southern agriculture for more than a half century. Nevertheless the term did not get into the census dictionary until 1920—a strange oversight, considering the fact that 225,000 or a full fourth of all the white tenants in the thirteen cotton and tobacco states of the South are croppers. In North Carolina the ratio is one-fourth, and in Chatham it is one-fourth, and in Baldwin and Williams townships it is one-fourth. One-fourth looks like a fatal ratio for the submerged white croppers of the South. The croppers in particular are The Forgotten Men that Walter H. Page wrote about—The Men Whom God Forgot, in the phrase of Robert W. Service.

Accumulated Property and Gross Money Incomes

How little renters and croppers own and how little money they handle during the year appears in the following table, covering the year 1921 in Baldwin and Williams townships of Chatham county.

ECONOMIC CLASSES	Property Owned	Owned Per Family	Total Cash Income	Cash Per Family
135 white owners	$624,642	$4,627	$ 84,553	$626
41 black owners	93,856	2,407	21,708	597
38 white renters	19,999	526	9,525	251
13 white croppers	3,279	426	1,993	153
66 black renters	27,016	409	19,053	289
36 black croppers	4,113	123	2,777	197
329 farmers	$772,905	$2,349	$139,609	$424

In order to render more vivid the money-bare condition of the farmers in Williams and Baldwin townships in Chatham, we are tabulating the money handled in their homes per person per day in 1921. Throughout this study we are speaking of the gross money income of these farmers. And bear in mind (1) that 69 percent of this income was derived from farming, most of which came in lump sums in the fall when their cotton and tobacco were sold, and (2) that 31 percent of it was produced by other interests and activities more or less casual. This casual income was the ready money they handled from day to day. The bulk of their cash was not in hand till the market season at the end of the year.

The average daily cash income of these 329 farmers in 1921 was as follows:

ECONOMIC CLASSES	Family Cash Per Year	Daily Cash Per Person
135 white owners	$626	34 cents
41 black owners	597	32 "
38 white renters	251	14 "
13 white croppers	153	8 "
66 black renters	289	16 "
36 black croppers	197	10 "

If these were not actual figures reported in person by the farmers themselves, they would be absolutely unbelievable. How can farm tenants live and keep their families alive on average actual cash incomes ranging from eight to sixteen cents a day per family member? How can they afford to wait ten or twelve months for the balance of their money? The answer is, They couldn't but for (1) the meagre credit of the supply stores, and (2) advances of their landlords—small sums of money and pantry supplies from time to time. And when their crop money comes in later, their debts consume it almost to the last cent.

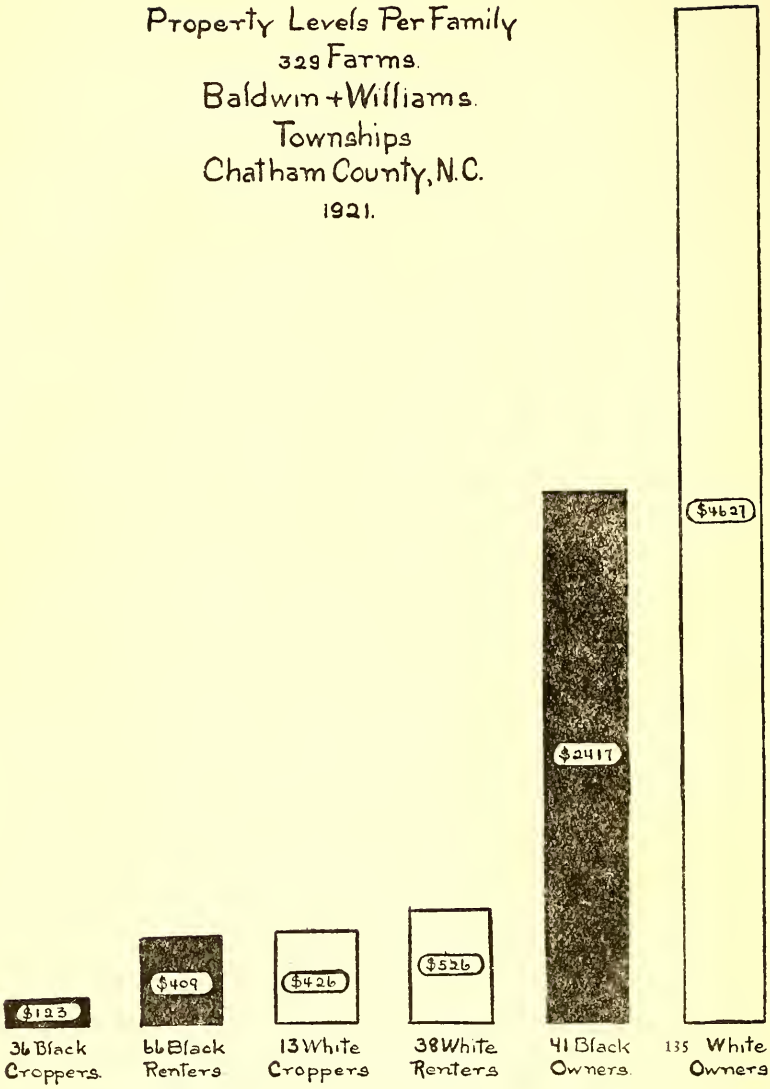
Such is the economic status of 153 renters and croppers, black and white, or nearly half of all the farmers in this little area of the cotton-tobacco belt in the South—the status of 51 or more than a fourth of all the white farmers, the status of 102 or nearly three-fourths of all the negro farmers, in Williams and Baldwin townships in Chatham county, North Carolina.

As the farm tenants are in this little corner of Chatham, so they are in general throughout the state and every other state in the South.

The economic levels of the 329 farm homes covered by this particular field-study are indicated by the following charts exhibiting (1) the average of property owned per family, and (2) the average money handled per day per person in the household.

The concentration of farm property in the hands of the landowners, and the amazingly low levels of farm tenants in property ownership appear at a glance. In detail the facts are as follows: (1) a little more than half of all the farmers, both races counted into the total, are landowners, but they own more than nine-tenths of al lthe property. (2) The black farm owners are a little more than a fourth of all the negro farmers, but they own three-fourths of all the negro property. (3) The white farm owners are nearly three-fourths of all the white farmers, but they own ninety-seven percent of all the white property.

Farm areas in general are distinctly characterized by the equable distribution of property, but not so in Southern farm tenancy areas. The disparity in property ownership between farm owners and farm tenants is startling. Such farm wealth as we have in the South is in the hands of the farm owners. It is so in the case of both races. What the tenants own—renters or croppers—is nearly nothing. The drawl of a white cropper exhibits it with photographic accuracy; "Ain't no trouble fer me



to move. I ain't got nothing much but er soap gourd and er string er red-peppers. All I got to do is ter call up Tige, spit in the fire place, and start down ther road.''

But the essential disparity lies in the ownership of land or the lack of such ownership. The tenants as a class own no land. They own a little

personal property, but no land. The ownership of land is just as significant today as it was ten centuries ago when the Saxons coined the phrases: "The land is the man; no land, no man; who owns the land owns the man; who owns the land rules the realm."

Landownership and liberty go hand in hand in every land under Heaven under any form of government. Freedom—economic, social and political—lies essentially in the ownership of farms in the countryside, and homes in the towns and cities. Landless farm tenants and homeless city dwellers are a rapidly increasing body of people everywhere in America. Already they are a majority in twenty-one states of the Union—in the Great Industrial area north of the Ohio and east of the Mississippi, they are now an overwhelming majority. And some day these people must be reckoned with en masse. Macaulay's prophecy set 1937 as the fateful year of reckoning between the Haves and the Havenots in America. The beginnings of this time, said Lord Bryce in 1910, lie not more than twenty years ahead. America in her swift onward progress—he goes on to say—sees, looming on the horizon and now no longer distant, a line of mists and shadows wherein dangers may lie concealed, whose form and magnitude she can scarcely yet conjecture.—*The American Commonwealth,* volume II, pp 912-13, 1910 edition. The common condition of landlessness will at last breed a common like-mindedness. Signs of it appear with increasing frequency of late—as for instance in Texas in the last state election—and they are disquieting. Can a civilization forever endure on the basis of political freedom and economic serfdom? At bottom this is the issue that is being fought out in England at this very minute—with ballots, in the English way. Soon or late this is the fundamental issue that America faces, and let us hope that it can be faced in the English and not in the Russian way.

Cash Income Levels

The landowning farmers and the landless tenants, in the Chatham area surveyed, are far apart in the possession of property. There is less distance between them in the annual average cash handled per household. David R. Coker of Hartsville, S. C., reckoned the average cash incomes on the cotton farms of the South in 1921 at $600.*

In our survey, the average cash income of 135 white farm owners was $626 or a little above Mr. Coker's estimate; it was $597 or a trifle below for the 41 black farm owners. As for the tenants, it ranged from $153 for the white croppers to $289 for the black renters. The average gross cash income for the 329 farmers, owners and tenants, black and white, was only $424 in 1921 or nearly a full third less than Mr. Coker's estimate.

These annual cash incomes are in striking contrast with $881.90 the average necessary money income for a family of three, and with $1,501.45 the average for a family of six in the anthracite coal region of Pennsylvania, as reported by the National Industrial Conference Board, in February 1922.

* Address before the Cosmos Club, Columbia, S. C., October 22, 1922.

The black farm owners and the white farm owners were nearly on a level in annual cash incomes per family; and the negro renters were well above the white renters. The black croppers occupy the next level and the white croppers foot the column. The croppers, white and black, handle less than $200 in cash in the run of the year.

The cash incomes of the white farm owners are reduced to a small measure by the idle unproductive land they own. Their main wealth is in land. They are land-poor today, as our landowners were in the days immediately following the war of 1860-65. Nevertheless they hold these profitless lands with grim determination. No other business men on earth would hold on to dead capital in such large measure.

The inadequacy of these cash incomes is better realized when they are reduced to the daily cash per household member.

The table is as follows:

CASH INCOME CLASSES	Daily Cash Per Person
1. White farm owners	34 cents
2. Black farm owners	32 "
3. Black renters	16 "
4. White renters	14 "
5. Black croppers	10 "
6. White croppers	8 "

The advantage of the landless negro farmer over the landless white farmer is plainer than print.

But aside from the question of class levels, the bare facts of daily money income per household member are arresting—or they ought to be.

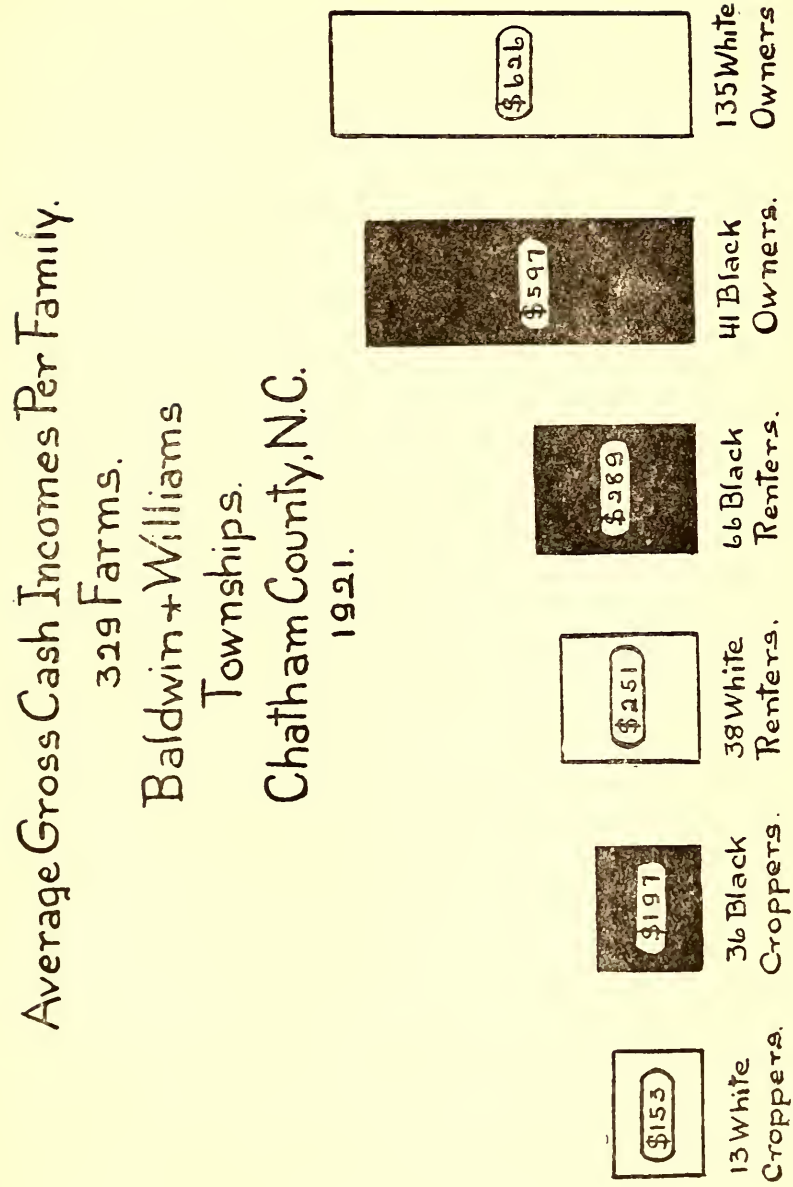
Everybody knows about the piecayune daily wage of pauper labor in the far East. We have the same thing in the cotton-belt of the South. We have had vague notions about this thing, but here are the facts or a small cross section of the facts. Half of all our Southern farmers, counting blacks and whites together, are tenants, and a full third of these tenants are croppers. For long years they have been producing cotton on a pauper level at a pauper daily wage in money.

Will they continue to do it? For a half century they have stuck to this back-breaking, heart-breaking task because of use and wont and custom. Will they keep it up forever? It does not seem likely. These submerged farmers cannot produce cotton under boll weevil conditions and keep soul and body together—or not at any prices that cotton has brought at any time during the last forty years.

And if they quit? Well, if they do, the merchants and bankers of the South will face bankruptcy and the cotton spinners of the country will be in sore straits.

And about these facts of gross cash incomes in money, per person in farmer households, this may be said—they are facts.

We do not know and probably never will know the exact cost of producing a pound of cotton on any farm or in any community of any state. The cost varies according to the season, the size of the farm, the industry,


Average Gross Cash Incomes Per Family.
329 Farms.
Baldwin + Williams
Townships.
Chatham County, N.C.
1921.
$153
13 White Croppers.
$197
36 Black Croppers.
$251
38 White Renters.
$289
66 Black Renters.
$597
41 Black Owners.
$626
135 White Owners.

the technical skill and the managerial ability of the farmer; and reliable facts are difficult to assemble because book-keeping and cost accounting are rare in farm areas. The best we have been able to learn about the cost of producing cotton is barely better than a mathematical guess more or less approximate.

And we know almost as little about the net labor income of the cotton farmer. It is a problem of the same character and complexity as that of reckoning the unit cost of cotton production, and the usual results of farm income surveys in the cotton belt are little more than arithmetical approximations.

But we can know about the gross money incomes of farmers. That information is as simple as abc's. We know about the gross money incomes of 329 farmers in two Chatham county townships in 1921—about (1) the cash incomes sourced in farm activities and interests, and (2) the casual money received from all other sources.

And no matter what their net incomes were, their gross incomes in money were a beggar's pittance, ranging from eight cents a day per person in the household of white croppers to 34 cents per person in the household of white farm owners.

Why ask about the net money incomes of people with pitiful money rewards of this sort? We know without asking that surplus cash for comforts and luxuries, for teachers and preachers, for books and papers, for church causes and tax treasuries is scarce—how scarce these farmers alone know; and this scarcity imperils every forward movement in the community and in the commonwealth alike.

Here is the explanation of the farmer's interest in taxes and tax propositions. His interest is simple and single—he is opposed as a class to anything that increases his taxes. And his opposition is not sourced in stupidity nor in miserly reluctance: it is sourced in a collapsed pocket book.

II

The Social Estate of White Farm Tenants

Having considered (1) the property possessions and (2) the gross money incomes of 329 farmers, owners and tenants, black and white, in the area surveyed, let us now turn our attention to the 51 white tenants alone, and ask who they are, how they live, their chances at farm ownership under present conditions by self-effort alone, the need for outside aid, the number who could be aided in this territory, the probable number of such tenants in the state-at-large, and the feasible forms of aid that the state might effectively offer.

1. *Who They Are.* These fifty-one white tenants fall into three classes, (1) twenty-five renters living on and cultivating family lands, (2) thirteen renters with no landowning ancestry—with one exception the sons of landless tenant farmers, and (3) thirteen croppers who are without neighborhood kinship in land tenures—pilgrims, strangers and sojourners in the land, with little or no workstock and farm implements of their own, and

a minimum worldly wealth in household goods and utensils or with an average of only $426 per family, which is only $17 more than that of the 66 negro renters alongside whom they struggle for existence.

(1) The twenty-five white renters living on family lands are distinctly a preferred class of tenant farmers—here as everywhere else in the South. They are the sons, sons-in-law, or nephews of their landlords. They rent on favorable terms, they share in small or large measure in the properties and products of tribal farming—in fruits, vegetables, poultry, butter and eggs, in milk animals, workstock and implements, in automobiles and buggies in trips to town on week days and to church on Sundays, and so on and on. What they need they borrow from the homefolks. They belong to the landed gentry. They enjoy the social estate of the land owners. They live and move on a level with the best in the neighborhood. They are apprenticeship farmers who look forward with more or less certainty to land-ownership by gift, inheritance, marriage, or purchase on easy terms. They know, none better, that farming is no maypole dance; but there are better days in store—not affluence and ease to be sure, but the prideful ownership of farms of their own and life on the highest levels in their home community and county. They are born and bred to farming and the way ahead is open. Many of them choose to be farmers as a way of life despite the call of the crowds in mill towns and city centers. Many or most of the five thousand additional white farm owners in North Carolina in the last census period rose into land-ownership out of this class.

Of the 135 white farm owners in the area covered by this survey fifty-four or two-fifths received their farms by gift, inheritance or marriage during the last twenty years, and of the 51 white tenants at present twenty-five or nearly exactly one-half are tenants on family lands, and are heading into ownership by birth or wedlock. Kith and kin relationships are now and have always been the South's main reliance for increases in the number of landowning farmers and for a stable agriculture based on ownership.

But mark this—these young people, bred to the purple of farm ownership, are the very farmers who can most easily move out of farm territories and adopt the manners and habits of city life; and under boll weevil conditions this is what they are doing in appalling numbers. So because the ownership of land in these devastated areas means farm profits and rent revenues reduced to zero, and farming as a business rendered unattractive or impossible. More and more they are turning away from farming as a livelihood in the South, and as a consequence farm tenancy in the cotton-tobacco belt moves steadily toward the peasant type of European countries. The South, in short, is developing a kind of farm tenancy that is unknown elsewhere in the United States. In the North and West farm tenancy is a capitalistic enterprise; in the south is a social estate.*

* It would be impossible in any cotton-belt county to find a fifth of the tenants operating with capital ranging from $3,000 to $9,000 each, as in Chester county, Penn., or one hundred tenants each operating with capital ranging from $20,000 to $60,000 and over, as in Iowa. See figures in Bizzell's Tenantry in the United States, pp. 137, 143. Tenancy in the South is not a matter of deliberate choice on part of farmers with operating capital; it is a matter of hard necessity on part of moneyless men.

(2) The thirteen white renters who are not living on family lands are all—or all but one—the sons of renters or croppers. They were not born to landownership. If ever they own farms of their own, they must depend on self-effort alone—on industry, thrift, sagacity, sobriety and integrity. Their lot in life is toil. With only two exceptions, their wives are hoe-hands in the fields, from eight to ten hours a day during periods ranging from thirty to two hundred days of the year according to family circumstances. One of these women is a mother fifty-one years old. The unbroken rule is to send the children, both boys and girls alike, into field work at seven or eight years of age—so because there is no hired labor to be had and no money with which to pay such labor.

The family property these self-help white renters have been able to accumulate ranges from $243 to $1405 in value; the average is $424 or only $153 less than the worldly possessions of the renters seated on family lands. Their ownership of workstock and farm tools is an evidence of industry and thrift. In varying degrees it indicates a look upward out of tenancy into ownership. A further indication of industry is afforded by the fact that their average annual cash income per family is nearly $100 more than that of the white croppers—$251 against $153. They own no more personal property than the white croppers, but they work harder and look higher. As for social status, they are fairly on a level with the preferred class of white renters on family lands. White owners and tenants of both classes worship together in the churches, their children play together at school and vie with one another for applause at the school commencements, their families exchange visits freely, they fish and hunt together in the open seasons. There are no apparent class differences between white renters and white farm owners in this territory. Both types of renters—those living on family lands and those without kinship to their landlords—are fairly stable types, living as they do on the same farms or in the same neighborhoods year after year. The stability of the white renters is best indicated by the ownership of milk cows. Twenty-nine of the thirty-eight own forty-one cows; eight of these own two cows each and two own three cows each. Only nine renters own no cows and three of these renters have the use of cows belonging to their landlords. Tenants of migratory instincts and habits rarely ever own cows—they are a bother in moving. In this tenancy area milk and butter are abundant staples of family diet; which puts Chatham in sharp contrast with the all-cotton counties of the Tidewater and the Coastal Plains. These renters are people of stable citizenship, or so in the main. Good tenants are too hard to get and to keep, for the landlords to be over-exacting in rent contracts and business dealings. Many of these self-help tenants have been on the same farms year after year. The ratio of change from year to year is less than one-fifth, against one-half in the cotton belt of the State and the South.

(3) The thirteen white croppers are in a different category in many or most particulars. And mind you, they are a fourth of the white tenants in this territory. They lack industry in the area surveyed; as shown

by the fact that their average annual cash income per family is $44 less than that of the black croppers, nearly $100 less than that of white renters, and $136 less than that of the black renters. They lack aspiration, as shown by the fact that they own little or no workstock and farm tools, without which they could not hope to rise out of tenancy into ownership. They lack the home-owning aspirations and virtues of the thirteen self-help farmers in the class next above them. Their standards of living are higher but their levels of life are lower than those of the black farmers alongside whom they live and work; inevitably so because their average cash income is less—22 percent less than that of the black croppers, 47 percent less than that of the black renters, and 74 percent less than that of the black owners. They suffer in personal and in family pride. They move from pillar to post from year to year. They are a migratory type of farmers. They are cursed with the restless foot of the Wandering Jew. They lack identity with the community in which they live. They lack abiding citizenship and a sense of proprietary interest in schools and churches and neighborhood enterprises. They lack a sense of responsibility for community morals, law and order. They live on an average cash income of eight cents a day per family member in the area surveyed and upon some such pauper wage the South over. They are unduly tempted into the business of making and vending illicit liquors. They furnish a disproportionate percent of the white cases on the criminal court dockets. They are satisfied with their landless lot in life. They are a contented not a bold peasantry, in Goldsmith's phrase, but they are not their country's pride. As a class they are a doubtful economic asset and a distinct social menace. Or so they are as a rule in Chatham, in every other county of the state—in this state and in every other state of the cotton and tobacco belt.

2. *The Homes They Live In.* From this point on we group both types of white renters together, because they live on almost exactly the same social level. The differences are trivial and not worth noting. From time to time we deal with the white croppers separately because they are a class occupying a distinctly lower level of existence.

The households of the thirty-eight white renters number 178 souls. The children number 101 and sixty of these are children of school ages. The dwellings they live in are usually of board and timber construction, a few are old log houses, the left-over remains of former days. Six of them let in the weather through the roofs or the floors and walls. Twenty have 203 window lights out and ten have shutters off. In more than half of these dwellings it is possible to study astronomy through the holes in the roof and geology through the cracks in the floor. There is a separate dwelling for each family, and the 38 dwellings are scattered throughout 104 square miles of territory or close to three square miles for every family. There is no lack of elbow-room for family life in this farm area.

On an average these dwellings are thirty years old; nearly half of them have faced the elements for a quarter century or more. Only four have

been built within the last four years. How can farm owners with a gross money income averaging $29 a year build new tenant houses or keep the old houses in proper repair?

Nor is there any lack of elbow space within the tenant dwellings. There are 164 rooms and 147 beds for the 178 occupants. The bed rooms number 124 or more than three per household on an average. Of one-room shacks there are none, and of two-room shanties only four. Eleven dwellings have four rooms each, and fifteen contain from five to six rooms each. These last were the homes of farm owners in by-gone days, now abandoned to tenants. The crowding of humans as in city tenements is a thing unknown in the country regions of the South. Parlors are rare—there are only two in all the thirty-eight dwellings. There are no separate sitting rooms. Bed rooms and sitting rooms are one and the same, and kitchens are invariably used as dining rooms. Only seven of the dwellings are ceiled or plastered, only ten are painted or whitewashed, and only thirteen evidence care on part of the occupants.

But there are signs of family pride and aspirations here and there. One tenant has a washing machine, two have automobiles, two have refrigerators, three have telephones, four have organs, four have victrolas and three have other musical instruments, five have rugs on the floors, nine live in dwellings wholly screened and seven in dwellings partly screened, nine have grass plots about their houses, thirty-one have flower beds, and thirty-five have sewing machines. But in the main, comforts, luxuries and conveniences are sadly lacking in these households—how could they be provided on cash incomes averaging fourteen cents a day per family member?

3. *Health Conditions.* None of the thirty-eight families have running water in their dwellings, thirty-five have wells, all of them over twenty feet deep; ten of these are open and twenty-four are closed; twenty are under the kitchen or the porches or in the yard within thirty feet of the house. Three of the families must bring the daily water supply in oft repeated trips up-hill from springs.

Only eight families have out-door closets, and these are all used by both sexes. None of the out-houses are fly-proof or water-tight, all are open to the poultry and pigs, none are ever cleaned, and three of them are drained toward the water supply. The bushes and the barn lot buildings are the screens of family privacy for thirty homes. Soil pollution by body-waste is the rule here as elsewhere throughout the country regions of the United States.* Kitchen waste in all the dwellings is fed to the hogs in the nearby pens, and on six lots the pens are drained toward the water supply.

A doctor's office is on an average of eight miles away from the homes of these thirty-eight farm tenants. And so only seventeen families called in physicians during the year. Five others called on the doctor in his office. The total paid by twenty-two families to the doctors in fees and to

* Rural Sanitation—Public Health Bulletin No. 94, U. S. Public Health Service, Washington, D. C.

the druggists for prescriptions was $ was an average of $48.64 per family. Thirty-five of the hom for patent medicines and nostrums of one sort or another, verage of $6 per family. Nearly one-ninth of the total cash is group of tenants went for illnesses, to say nothing of funeral exper when the illness ended in death. Seven homes had doctors' bills ranging rom $50 to $400 each. In one home the worldly possessions amounted to $218 and the doctors' bill to $75; in another the doctors' bill was $160 or a full third of all the tenant owned on earth; in another the doctors' bill amounted to $400 and the tenant's worldly goods to only $289. No wonder the doctor is called in as seldom as possible and always at the last moment—not because his charges are so large, but because the tenant's ability to pay is so little. And no wonder that all but three of the households rely for the most part on quack remedies and patent medicines. Small cash incomes in farm-owner homes and poverty in tenant homes is the reason why doctors cannot live in the country regions, and why they are fleeing out of the rural counties. If a single doctor had all the tenant practice of these two townships he would have had only $1068 to live on in 1921, supposing he were able to collect every cent of it. Ill health and the cost of it in cash keeps many or most of these tenants poor—hopelessly poor. Solomon was right: verily the destruction of the poor is their poverty. Death is more endurable than sickness in many tenant homes. Said one sad-faced mother who had lost two children in infancy. "I reckon it was a-God's mercy. I didn't have nothing fit ter feed 'em on and no chance ter take care uv 'em."

The children borne by the mothers in these households in the course of a life-time number 148. Forty-seven of these children are dead. Eighteen were born dead, eleven died during the first year, and six during the first five years. Twenty-seven of the mothers were delivered by doctors, five by white midwives, one by a negro midwife, and five were unattended in child-birth save by the panic-stricken members of the households. Only one-eighth of all the children were delivered by midwives—a most surprising discovery. Most people have an idea that midwives play a larger part in the country regions. Only four of the thirty-eight tenant mothers have ever received the literature of the State Department of Public Health, and these four are the daughters-in-law of home-owning farmers. Six households have had no medical examination of r children at school and no reports of their physical defects. Not one of all the 178 members of these tenant households has ever been vaccinated against smallpox or typhoid fever. Disease prevention and health promotion are little considered in farm tenant homes.

Two things stand out in this field study. First, the virility of the men, the fecundity of the women, and the amazing grip on life of our tenant populations. The signs of physical degeneracy are rare in the area surveyed. Our renters are a coming not a disappearing element of population in the South. All they need is a decent chance; and when we say this, we have in mind the renters, not the croppers, who represent the

bottom-most levels of life in our farm regions. And second, the prevalence of sickness of one sort or another—the result not of insufficient food, quantities considered, but of unvaried, ill-balanced diets, and untutored ways of cooking and serving meals. Disordered digestion and defective teeth are the common causes of chronic morbidity; soil pollution and fly-borne diseases are the major causes of mortality. Or so we came to conclude.

4. *Schools and School Influences.* For the white children of these two townships there are seven public schools. Six are one-teacher schools of elementary grade, open for only six months of the year, usually in the fall and winter months when the demand for work in the fields is least. One is a five-teacher school at Bynum, a little cotton mill village of some forty-odd dwellings. Here the children have a chance at two years of high-school subjects—their only chance at such schooling in these two townships. For more they must go into other townships or counties. All the elementary schools in the open country are housed in buildings that are old and weather-stained. None of them have been built within the last twenty years. They are taught for the most part by young girls in their teens or by young women born in Chatham or in the neighboring counties. All the teachers have had schooling in high school subjects, four have had some schooling in college subjects, but none are college graduates. The rule is a new teacher in each school every year, because the teacher is dissatisfied with the school conditions of the district or because the people of the district are dissatisfied with the teacher. Exceptions to this rule are few from year to year. The schools and country roads are so inadequate that the people are strongly minded to petition the legislature to annex their territory to Durham county where school and road funds are more abundant. As a result the Chatham school board offers to replace the six small country schools next year with three consolidated schools, two in Williams and one in Baldwin. The country people are strongly in favor of larger, better schools, but they are finding it difficult to agree upon the locations of the consolidated schools proposed.

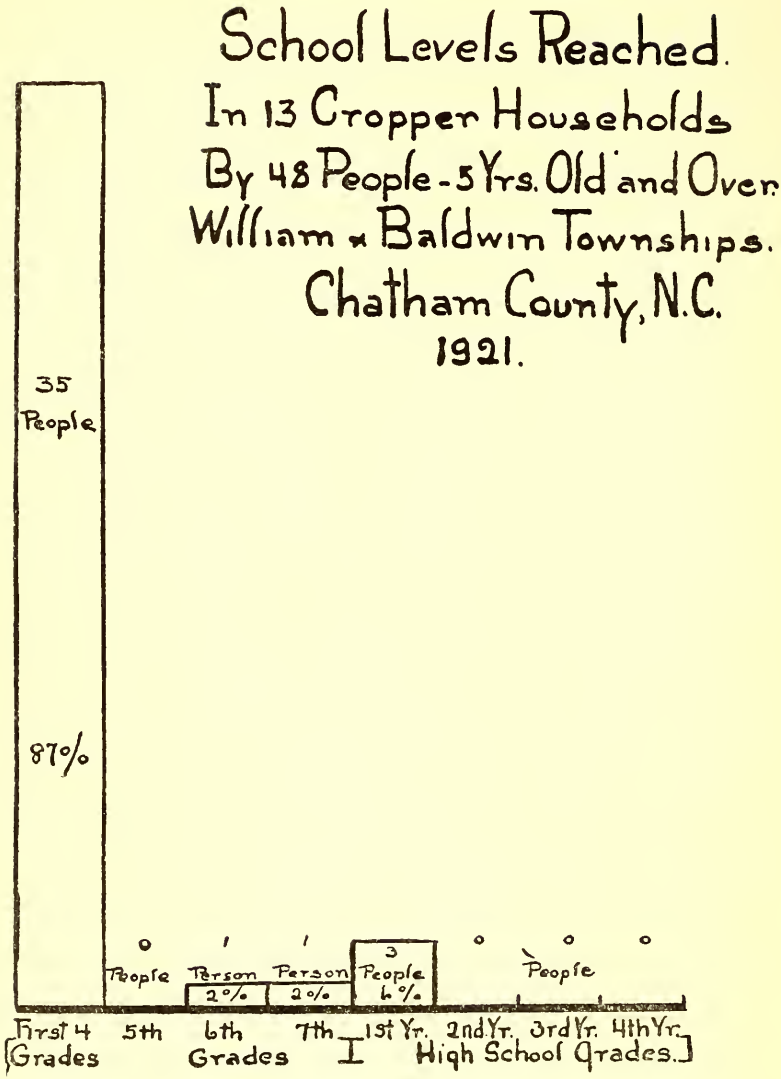
The inadequate school advantages of this area have left their marks upon the fifty-one tenant households. One hundred and seventy-three of the occupants are more than ten years of age, and sixteen of them are unable to read or write, which is an illiteracy ratio of 9.2 percent, against a state average of 8.2 percent.

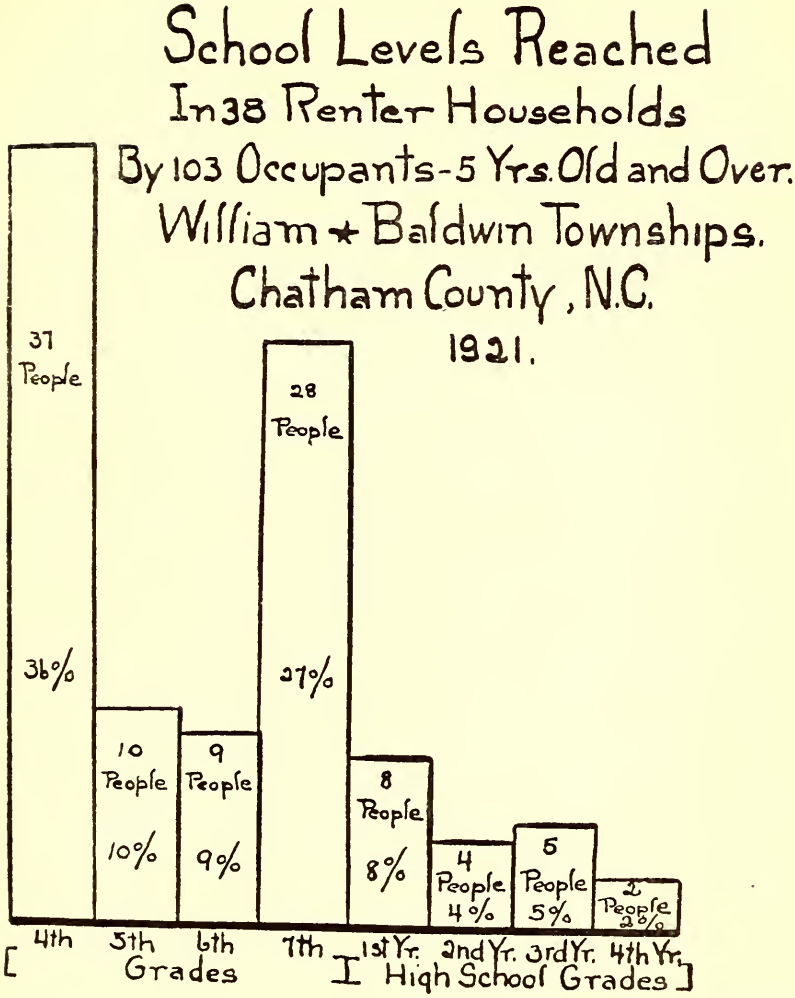
One or more illiterates were found in six families. Thirteen of the sixteen were found in three families. These are the families in which illiteracy reigns. In two families are seventeen people ten years of age and over, and ten of them are illiterate. The extreme case is one cropper family with six in the household; five are ten years old or over and three are illiterate. Nobody in this household belongs to the church, and nobody goes to Sunday school. It is the excessive number of illiterates in these three families that smudges the score of the two townships. But for these and one illiterate each in three other families it could be said that there is no

white illiteracy in Baldwin and Williams townships. There is none whatsoever in forty-five of the fifty-one tenant familes.

The school levels of the thirty-eight renter families are significant of the culture of this tenancy area. There are 103 people in these households seven years old and over. Thirty-seven have reached only one or another of the first four grades; ten got only as far as the fifth grade; nine got only into the sixth grade; and twenty-eight reached the seventh grade. Only nineteen or around a fifth of them all have ever had any acquaintance with high school subjects. For nearly exactly half of the renter households, school culture may be said to stop on a fifth reader level. Eight people in these households have had only one year of high school instruction, four reached the second high school grade, five dropped out in the third year, and only two were graduated. There is no member of any tenant household in all this area who ever went to college or ever received a college diploma.

The record of the thirteen white cropper households is even more significant. There are forty people in these families seven years old and over, but only five have ever gone beyond the first four grades of school. One got as far as the sixth grade, one as far as the seventh grade, and three got into the first year of high school subjects. For nine-tenths of the cropper families life stops on a fourth reader level. The contrast between the school culture of renters and croppers appears at a glance in the charts that follow.


School Levels Reached.
In 13 Cropper Households
By 48 People - 5 Yrs. Old and Over
William & Baldwin Townships.
Chatham County, N.C.
1921.
35 People
87%
0 People
1 Person 2%
1 Person 2%
3 People 6%
0
0
0 People
First 4 Grades
5th
6th Grades
7th
1st Yr.
2nd Yr.
3rd Yr.
4th Yr.
High School Grades.



The country regions furnish three-fourths of the college professors and five-sixths of all the preachers of America, says Ashenhurst; but in North Carolina they are born and bred in the homes of farm owners, not in the homes of farm tenants. There may be exceptions, but they could not be brought to light by the research questionnaires of Rev. J. M. Arnette, a Baptist minister applying for a doctorate degree from the University of North Carolina. His conclusion is that the farm tenant homes of this state give no preachers to the churches of his faith, or so few as to be negligible in the total count of Baptist clergymen. We definitely know

that farm tenancy raises the ratios of white illiteracy and lowers the ratios of white church membership with fatal certainty in the South. Does it also blow out the light in the souls of our white tenants? If so, farm tenancy ought to probe to the quick of the intelligence and Christian conscience of church authorities and church members, for the sixty-three thousand white tenant households of North Carolina contain nearly one-fifth of the entire white population of the state.

5. *What Farm Tenants Read.* The thirty-eight tenant households subscribe for newspapers and magazines, receive free public bulletins, and own books as follows:

12 families subscribe for a country weekly each.
12 families subscribe for a farm paper each.
9 families subscribe for popular magazines, 14 in number.
6 families subscribe for church papers, seven in number.
5 families subscribe for a daily paper each.
38 families have each a Bible and an almanac.
0 families subscribe for children's papers or magazines.
4 families receive the State Public Health Bulletin.
0 families receive any other bulletins—from any state department, or any state college.
13 families have all told 153 children's books including school books.
14 families have 38 religious books, mainly songbooks.
3 families have 43 novels.
34 families have 473 volumes of various other sorts, mail order catalogues, reports, old medical books, law books, etc., most of these in three families.
0 families have any books on agriculture or country life.
0 families borrow books from school or other public libraries.
2 families have no books but the Bible.

The bulk of the papers, magazines, books and bulletins are in the homes of thirteen tenants on family lands who have inherited the traditions of family culture in farm-owner homes. Seven self-help tenants and five croppers subscribe to newspapers and have a few books in their homes —one of these, a goodly number of books. Twenty-six or more than half of the fifty-one tenant homes are bare of books, papers, and magazines. The wonder is not that so few but that so many books, papers, and magazines reach these farm tenant homes. The 153 books for the children are the bright particular spot in these homes. One hundred and fifty-three children's books would not long keep alive the sixty youngsters of reading ages in thirty-eight homes, but we dare to say that they play a large part in making country life endurable.

The country weekly leads the list of newspapers, here as everywhere else in the state, and advertisers may like to note this fact—that is, if they want to reach the people who have a minimum of pin money to spend.

Church papers come fourth in the order of frequency, and the editors of church papers may like to note that fact. Farm tenants crave country

weeklies, farm papers, and popular magazines more than they crave the religious journals of North Carolina.

Aside from the Bible, the books in these homes are miscellaneous volumes, children's books, novels, and religious books, named in a descending order of numbers. No book on agriculture was found in any tenant home, and in one cropper home no Bible.

The state departments and the state institutions may like to note that aside from four homes receiving the State Health Bulletins, they are reaching none of these tenant homes with official literature. If they have an idea that their extension activities are covering North Carolina like the dew, they are mistaken. There is an immense work for them all to do in field services to the people of the state. The homes of the white renters are beyond their efforts at present in this area; and even more the homes of the white croppers. The chances are these facts are statewide, and that the 317,000 people in white farm tenant homes are receiving no benefit or almost none from their extension efforts.

6. *Churches and Church Influences.* Next to the home which is everywhere the strongest social group in country civilization, the country church stands out as the most important social institution—in this territory, in the state, and in the South in general.

Eight churches of three denominations serve the 1700 white inhabitants of Baldwin and Williams townships. Seven have preaching once-a-month and usually in rotation. All but two of the preachers serving these eight churches are non-residents, living in other communities or counties. Only one preacher in the active ministry and only one retired minister are living in this territory.

As in Orange, the country church buildings evidence pride and care. All but one were painted once-upon-a-time. The window lights are in, the blinds are on, the interiors are swept and dusted, the buildings are locked between preaching events, the grounds and graveyards are in order, and are kept so by the memorial day clean-up that features the country church year in mid-state Carolina, or such is the general appearance of all but one of the country churches. The dwellings of a country region in mid-state North Carolina may look dilapidated, but not the country church buildings as a rule.

Preaching in the different churches makes every Sunday of the month a social occasion for all the people, and everybody or almost everybody goes to church. It is the event of the week. The great event of the year is the revival or protracted meeting when crops are laid-by in the fall and the whole countryside turns out. Unhappily these church-recruiting occasions often conflict in dates. The church that offers the greatest excitement draws the largest crowds. The indifferent and the openly irreligious come out to the church at protracted meeting times. Even the bootleggers fringe the out-skirts of the crowds and not infrequently ply their trade within the curtilage of the churches.

The rest of the year the households go to the church of their own faith on one Sunday; the other Sundays of the month they mingle with the

congregations of other creeds, with a steadily decreasing sense of church differences. We'd all belong to one and the same church if it wasn't for the preachers, said one farmer with a twinkle in his eye. The families of farm owners, renters and croppers meet and mingle on a common level on Sundays; they freely exchange invitations to the basket dinners of the family groups on the church grounds on big occasions; and on the whole in this area the country churches are unifying rather than separating social influences.

Are these churches reaching and serving the tenants? This was the main inquiry of the church section of our survey schedule. The answer is, Yes, in the main—church attendance considered.

It is the rule in this corner of Chatham for every family to hitch-up or crank-up and go to church on Sundays—to the church of its own faith on one Sunday of the month and to other churches within reach on other Sundays. Preaching is the event of the week. It is the one chance for social intercourse, for talk about crops and candidates by the men and about babies and household ailments by the women. It is the rule of every renter family of both types—the kinsman and the self-help tenants almost without exception. The farm-owning families attend church no better than the renters, and there are no discoverable class differences here or elsewhere in this tenancy area.

But just as we expected, the thirteen white cropper families lag behind in church attendance. Four of these families or nearly a third of them all are habitually absent from church. No way to go, church too far away, no clothes, they say. In three families the fathers had the smell of corn whiskey on their breath when our surveyor talked with them, and the entire household were manifestly below the level of the neighborhood.

So much for church attendance. The Sunday school is another story. Of the fifty-one tenant families, thirteen go to church but not to Sunday school, four families more attend neither Sunday school nor church, and these four families are croppers. Thirty-four percent of the renter households and seventy-nine percent of the cropper households are not in Sunday school.

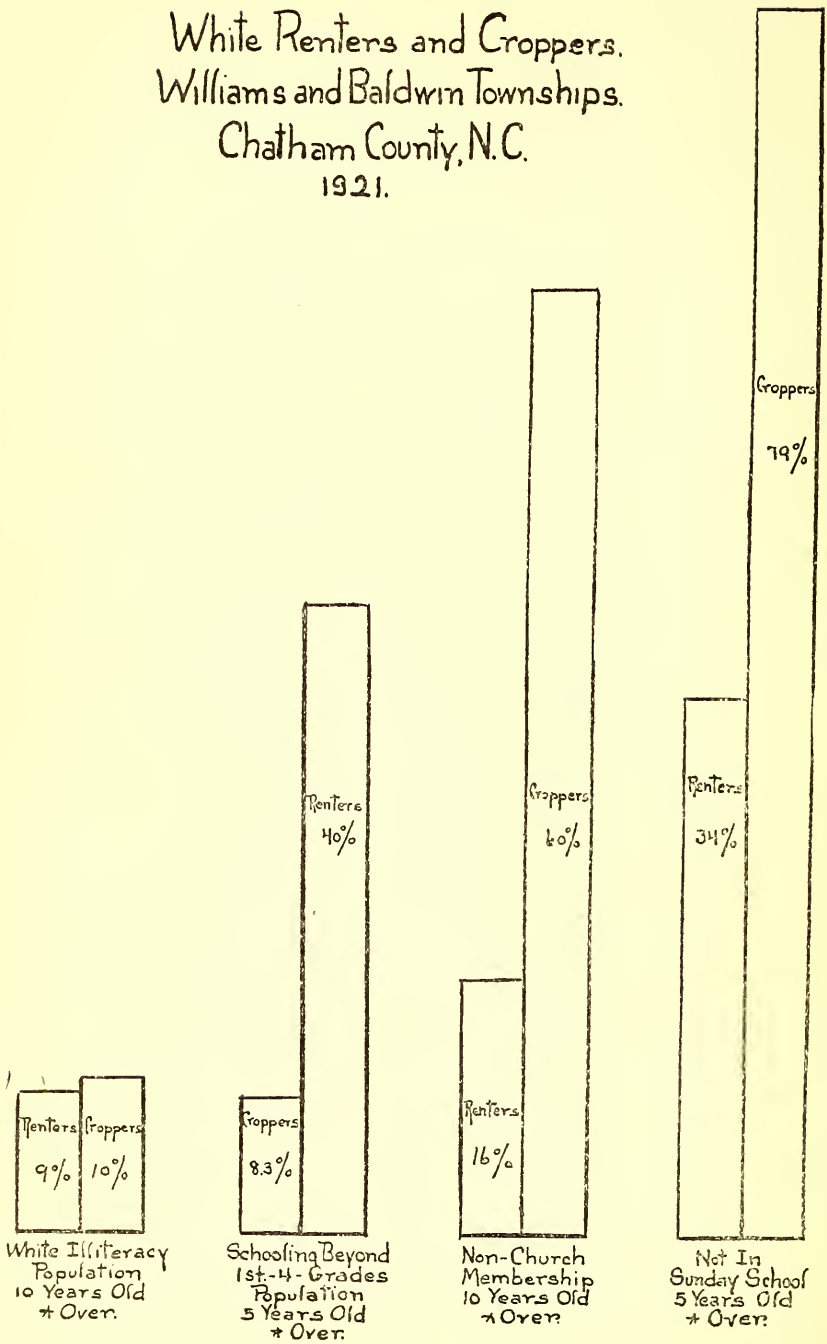
The Sunday school which ought to be the strongest phase of religious organization is the weakest. Here as elsewhere it fails to reach the humbler homes—the homes of the croppers in particular.

Tenant Church Membership. Turning from church attendance to church membership the tabulation is as follows:

HOUSEHOLDS	Occupants	Ten years old and over	Non Church members	Pct. Church members
25 Kinsman renters	178	83	13	86
13 Selp-help renters	71	50	8	84
13 Croppers	72	40	24	40

It will be noted that church membership in white tenant families in this territory is in direct ratio to property ownership, stable residence, and community identity. Here is the reason why three-fifths of the cropper

households are outside the church, and four-fifths of them outside the Sunday schools. The highest ratios of church membership are in renter households, and the lowest in cropper households. The renter households are 22 and 24 points above the state average of church membership, and the cropper households are 22 points below it. And it must not be forgotten that one of every ten people in these white cropper households, ten years old and over, is illiterate, and that nearly nine times out of ten his education ends with the fourth school grade. Here as elsewhere in the South a high illiteracy ratio in white tenancy areas means a low church membership ratio, for two reasons: first, it is embarrassing not to be able to read the hymns, and to sing with the rest of the congregation; and second, illiterate white croppers have little or no money to put into the contribution boxes, and "where we kaint pay we don't go," as one renter expressed it. White farm tenancy in the South breeds poverty, poverty breeds illiteracy, and together these three social conditions are deadly menaces to the country church. Besides, they remove beyond the reach of the church the very people who most need its ministrations, or so as a rule.


White Renters and Croppers.
Williams and Baldwin Townships.
Chatham County, N.C.
1921.
Renters
9%
Croppers
10%
White Illiteracy Population 10 Years Old + Over.
Croppers
8.3%
Renters
40%
Schooling Beyond 1st-4-Grades Population 5 Years Old + Over.
Renters
16%
Croppers
60%
Non-Church Membership 10 Years Old + Over.
Renters
34%
Croppers
79%
Not In Sunday School 5 Years Old + Over.

7. *Social Occasions and Contacts.* The three hundred and twenty-nine families of Baldwin and Williams townships—the owners and tenants of both races—are scattered throughout 104 square miles of territory. Whites and blacks are nearly equal in number, and their farms are small, averaging less than thirty cultivated acres each. They dwell in solitary farmsteads with wide spaces between, and farming is by nature a solitary business. The unit of economic production is the family, and the father is the over-lord of the group, in the ancient patriarchal fashion of family life. He may not have his legs under his own table, as the Danes say, but where he sits is the head of it, and nobody in the family is in doubt about it. Such is the type of rural family life in Chatham county, the State, and the South as a whole.

Within family groups in the country regions autocracy is the rule; between family groups democracy is the unquestioned order. The farmer is the best in his own group and accounts himself equal to the best in any other farm group. So it is in the rural civilization of almost all the countries of the new world. In almost all old-world countries the farmers dwell together in farm villages, and the extremes of individualism are softened by the intimate social contacts and the common concerns of hamlet households.

As a result American farmers are bred to think privately and locally in terms of the family and the neighborhood. They do not easily think in terms of the community and the commonwealth. The private-local mind of the farmer in the South is the ultimate obstacle to country community life and coöperative farm enterprise; also it is the ultimate problem in county government and in commonwealth development.

What, then, are the influences that tend to mitigate the overweening, unadjusted individualism of farm life in the field of this survey? What are the occasions that bring families together—in particular the families of tenant households? And what contacts do they have with the outside world?

Our study discloses the social aloofness of the farm tenant—the great distances to town centers, until recently in Chatham the absence of improved public highways, the rarity of telephones and motor cars—there are only two of each in fifty-one tenant homes, the fourth and fifth grade levels and limits of school culture in a majority of the families, the small average number of household newspapers, magazines, and books. The epoch-making events of the big wide world break in tiny ripples on the far distant shores of farm tenant lives only after many days—here and everywhere else in the South.

Social contacts and social occasions in the tenant households of this territory consist mainly of the inter-family affairs and events of the local church and school neighborhoods. In the order of frequency they are (1) preaching days in the country churches and commencement occasions in the country schools, (2) mutual visits between the homes of owners and tenants of each race on the basis of democratic equality—assumptions of family superiority are almost unknown, (3) the neighborly exchange of

labor in pinches produced by seasonal stresses—plowing, harvesting, threshing, corn shucking seasons and the like, (4) dogs, guns, and hunting parties—in these fifty-one tenant households there are fifty guns and forty-six dogs, (5) picnics which are usually school events, (6) holiday occasions and neighborhood gatherings, mainly during the Christmas season—parties or sociables as they are called, (7) occasional neighborhood fairs, usually at the school buildings, (8) other events—barbecues, opossum suppers and so on. The most common entry in the schedule blanks is "visiting, talking, telling jokes, hunting, fishing, eating, watermelons."

Practically everybody goes to church, every household hunts and fishes, and every family but one exchanges visits. The tenant families that have no part in the inter-family life of this territory are as follows: sixteen exchanged no labor during the year, eighteen attended no picnics, six took no part in holiday events, twenty-nine attended no sociables, and forty-two stayed away from the infrequent neighborhood fairs. No family attended a circus, and only one looked in at a film picture in the run of the year. Nowhere did we find a trace of dancing as a neighborhood event.

Children's plays around the home are primitive and in twenty-one homes they are altogether absent. Base, tag, dog-on-wood, hide-and-seek, cat, ball-over, stick-it-to-him, pitching horse-shoes, marbles, dolls, mud pies, riding sticks, red bugs, gully bugs, jack-in-the-bush, checkers, and rook are the home games of country children in this territory—dolls in only one tenant family, checkers in one, and rook in two. No cards were in evidence anywhere; but also Mother Goose is everywhere unknown. The home groups are too small for lively fun among the young people, and the one-teacher schools are too small to develop the values of team-play. Besides, the unconscious assumption is that children are born to work not to play. In listing for us the children's games in the various homes, one tenant housewife said with spirit, "I wants you to understand that we works hereabouts; we ain't no sportin neighborhood." There is abundant seasonal leisure in farm tenant homes, but no leisure-time philosophy of life. Salvation for young people lies in work, and getting together for a good time is an evidence of mortal sin of some sort.

And such is the unconscious assumption of the country churches. In no instance did we find any evidence that they were concerned about wholesome recreation in the countryside. Not social affairs in this world but salvation in the next world is the core of religious consciousness in our country regions. Rural religion is not anointed with "the oil of gladness" that David prayed for. Fun and frolic are tolerated with qualms of conscience or viewed with vague suspicion as essentially evil. And so the country church resigns country recreation to the Devil and all his works.

Life in solitary farmsteads, a few to the square mile, in the vast open spaces of America, is in itself a denial of a primary social instinct—the craving for companionship, and the farm family group fails to satisfy this craving. As a result, lonesomeness alone plays a large part in the cityward drift of country populations; it plays the largest part in the

exodus of farm boys and girls in their teens. There has been a steady movement of country people out of Baldwin and Williams townships for thirty years; since 1890 the population of Baldwin had dwindled from 2068 to 1439, and Williams has dropped from 2760 inhabitants to 1517. More than a third of all the people of these two townships have moved out in a single generation. Soon or late, a steady decrease in population produces static or stagnant social areas. Such is the net result of economic and social disadvantages, of life and livelihood under uninspiring or dispiriting influences; and in the last analysis it is social disabilities that destroy values of every sort, economic, civic and religious alike—farm values and incomes, store business and profits, neighborhood life and enterprise, community morals, law and order, county government efficiency and church development. Such are the pressing issues of existence for farmers and storekeepers, teachers and preachers to consider in Baldwin and Williams townships. More and better roads, better market facilities, larger cash incomes, more efficient schools and churches, more books, newspapers and magazines, greater attention to sanitation and hygiene, a braver attitude toward community morals, law and order, and a more intimate acquaintance with county office affairs—such are the foundations of a fuller life in the territory surveyed in Chatham county.

8. *Civic Consciousness.* But there are comforting signs of intelligent appreciation of the way-out in Baldwin and Williams townships. The straw ballot taken in the fifty-one tenant households shows that only seven of the ninety-nine voters were opposed to consolidated schools, only three were opposed to coöperative marketing, road bonds, or 'book farming,' only two thought college education a waste of time, and only two considered themselves free, white, and twenty-one and privileged to do as they pleased without regard to morals, law and order. And mark this—of these ninety-nine voters, seventy-two are in the habit of voting regularly.

Nineteen voters expressed positive, definite opinions about community needs, and in the main they were intelligent opinions. The other eighty voters had no opinions—had never thought about such matters, they said. The unthinking and the unconcerned were the vast majority—but of such is the Kingdom of Democracy in free America.

III

Helping Tenants into Farm Ownership

The fifty-one white tenants are nearly a third of all the white farmers in this territory, and the 102 negro tenants are nearly three-fourths of all the negro farmers. Ideally it is desirable for these landless farmers to own the land they cultivate. Civilization is rooted and grounded in the home-owning, home-loving, home-defending instincts. Nobody doubts this fundamental fact. But what is ideally desirable is not always actually possible, human nature considered. All these landless men need help, but not all of them can be helped. Many of them with judicious assistance could rise into farm ownership and effective citizenship; others in large

numbers could not be settled down in stable property ownership of any sort by the angel Gabriel himself; as they now are, an outright gift of forty acres and a mule would avail them little more than the manna sent down from Heaven availed the Children of Israel.

Who Can Be Helped: (1) With rare exceptions, not many of the white croppers can be helped into farm ownership. They are a fourth of all the white tenants in Chatham, in the State, and in the South. In North Carolina they number 16,575 families, and in the main they are satisfied with their landless estate. The upward look into farm ownership is absent. As a rule they are handicapped by a lack of the homeowning virtues, namely (1) steady-gaited industry, (2) thrift which is the combined result of prudeutial foresight and hardy self-denial, (3) sagacity or the ability to think things through to wise conclusions, (4) sobriety or freedom from the use of intoxicatiug liquors, and (5) integrity—reliability, a sense of moral obligations, trustworthiness, and the like essential qualities of character. Lacking these home-owning virtues or the will to develop them, no man on any level of life is likely to acquire property in land or to hold it inviolate. The hopeful white croppers are few but these few ought to be helped. We estimate their number to be two in Baldwin and Williams townships and 800 in the state-at-large. The ratio of hopefulness is right around one-twentieth of all the white croppers of the state. But while little can be done for the adults in cropper households, surely much can be done for the swarms of bright-faced children, before they are hardened by the conditions in hopeless homes. What can be done for them is a problem for day teachers, Sunday-school teachers and preachers, home and farm demonstration agents, university and state college extension services. Here is the most iusistent home mission problem in North Carolina and the South.

(2) The tenant group that offers the largest chance for effective outside aid is the group of self-help renters—so called because they have struggled into the ownership of workstock, farm tools and implements, household goods and utensils, by self-effort aloue, without the advantage of kith and kin relationships to their landlords, and without the hope of acquiring farms by iuheritauce, gift or marriage. This group is oue-fourth of all the white tenauts in Baldwiu aud Williams townships, and the chances are that this ratio is approximately true in the state-at-large. Which means some 16,600 farm families. Many of these could safely be lifted into the ownership of farms by judicious outside aid; but not all, indeed not many more than one-ninth of them all, say 2,000 all told. I say one-ninth because numerous field studies at the State University, and in various centers of research the world over of late years, show that something like nine of every ten people live from hand to mouth, consume all they produce, speud all they make, and drop iuevitably into debt in sudden emergencies.

(3) The kinsman tenants, the tenants whose landlords are fathers, uncles, fathers-in-law, and others closely related by blood or marriage ties, are one-half of all the white tenants in Baldwin and Williams townships,

and probably in the state-at-large. For them the way ahead into ownership is usually open, by inheritance, gift or marriage or by purchase on favorable terms. As a class they need not be considered in any policy of state-aid to farm ownership. What they need is mainly (1) the will to be home-owning farmers on the twenty-two million idle acres held by their kinspeople in North Carolina, and (2) farm prosperity sufficient to allow the accumulation of capital enough to equip their farms with more and better livestock, tools and machinery.

State-Aid to Land Ownership

To recapitulate: the white tenants in North Carolina who possibly might be helped into farm ownership are 800 croppers and 2,000 self-help renters, or 2,800 of the 32,000 white tenants of these two classes in the state. State-aid policies would be directly aimed at some 2,800 white tenant families and figured accordingly, to say nothing of some 1,400 worthy negro tenants. At the present average of current market prices for farm land in North Carolina, these 2,800 white tenants could be settled down on forty-acre farms of their own for $1000 apiece, or $2,800,000 all told.

Where are these millions to come from? From the state treasury as an outright gift? Not possibly so. There is no surplus there—nor ever likely to be—for landless farmers however worthy. And not desirably so, even if there were such treasury surpluses. State-aid to landless farmers, if considered at all, must be considered as a straight-out business proposition, and conducted from first to last as a solvent business enterprise not as a charity. It must not be a burden on the taxpayers of the state. It must not raise anybody's taxes by so much as a single cent, to pay either principal or interest. But while the state has no money to lend, it has credit in abundance, and this is what could be loaned to the worthy landless farmers of North Carolina as a state investment in character; and loaned not on the basis of state bonds of the kind we have heretofore issued but on the basis of debenture bonds issued by the state and protected by titles to the land bought for land settlement purposes and sold to the settlers. Not state bonds but debenture bonds issued by an authorized state agency and underwritten by the state is the business form of the proposition. What we are indicating is the California way, and there is no other way worth considering in North Carolina, in our opinion. The details in California appear in full in Helping Men to Own Farms, a small volume written by Dr. Elwood Mead of the University of California, executive secretary of the State Land Settlement Board, and the social engineer of the successful farm colonies established at Durham and Delhi. Our legislators and thoughtful students of essential commonwealth concerns in general in North Carolina are referred to this book. Twenty copies of it are on the shelves of the seminar library of the department of rural social-economics at Chapel Hill and will be loaned without charge upon request. We therefore limit our treatment of a state-aid policy to the few words of these brief paragraphs.

But before passing on to consider the Self-Help Agencies that already exist in North Carolina to serve capable ambitious tenants, we want to direct attention to the three essential values of the California Plan. First, it settles small farmers in farm communities and bases the marketing of farm products on community coöperation. Second, it costs the state nothing but capable faithful attention on part of its executive agency. Of the initial $260,000 set aside in 1918 by the legislature $118,000 has already been paid back, and the million dollars of debenture bonds authorized are not only fully covered by the land titles held, but the bonds are being paid off by the farmers, capital and interest, in amortized payments running through thirty-odd years. The plan of state-credit loans is so successful that the Board itself opposes any further aid by the state legislature. Third, the success of the plan has demonstrated that the private owners of large landed estates can use the business way of it to bring their idle, wilderness acres into cultivation with clear advantage to the settlers and with guaranteed profits to the land barons. The Settlement Board is therefore establishing no other colonies, but is devoting itself to the larger policy of schooling the owners of large estates in the business details of a complex plan, and to training social engineers of all sorts to act as efficient agents of private capital employed in establishing private colonies of home-owning farmers. In other words, what the state cannot do, as a large public enterprise, the private owners of large estates are now clamoring to do on their own initiative as a private business venture of demonstrated success. Showing the how of the thing is what California has done, and done at almost no expense to the state.

The initial $260,000 authorized by the California legislature for administrative purposes would be a needlessly large sum in North Carolina. So because we do not have California's problem of leveling, ditching and irrigating desert wastes. Fifty thousand dollars would probably be sufficient to enable a Land Settlement Board in this state to effect an organization, to inventory the problem, to define the engineering difficulties, and to indicate the necessary engineering staff. And we may add that the difficulties are mainly technical engineering difficulties—business engineering, production and distribution engineering, and social engineering for farm community life, as well as civil engineering in the preparation of farm land for immediate productiveness. When the Board is ready for the business of this public enterprise, direct state appropriations cease, because the administration cost is transferred to the overhead account of a solvent business. Or so it was in California, and so it could be in North Carolina. Business ability and selfless public servants are not confined to California alone. We have these in abundance in North Carolina. Unhappily we do not have an Elwood Mead to call into the executive direction of Board policies and details. There ought to be ten thousand Elwood Meads, for upon men of his sort the success of such public enterprises mainly and finally depends.

State-aided farm colonies in North Carolina is a question that ought to be thoroughly debated before final decisive action is voted, and in-

telligent popular support must be aroused or the policy will fail if adopted. Moreover such a plan must be characterized by freedom from class-legislation. It must open the way into land ownership for both races alike. Negro tenants need such aid less than white tenants, because under prevailing conditions they are acquiring farms of their own faster than the whites are doing in every southern state. The explanation of this fact is exhibited in full in The Human Way, a little volume published by the Southern Sociological Society, and in The University News Letter, Vol. VIII, No. 37.

Perhaps the wisest approach to state-aided landownership would be through a state commission charged with threshing out the problem in North Carolina and reporting a feasible policy to the legislature two years hence.

Self-Helping Agencies and Qualities

But whether or not the state adopt California's policy of state-aid for landless farmers, there are existing agencies of help for sturdy, capable, ambitious tenants. Our country banks, for instance, more or less actively encourage the thrifty by offering four percent interest on bank account savings. The thrifty souls of the state have more than a hundred million dollars in these institutions. If all our banks were as busy in behalf of the farmers as the First National Bank of Tarboro, the total of bank account savings in North Carolina could be quickly doubled.

Next we have our coöperative farm credit unions. They number twenty-nine at present, or more than in all the rest of the United States put together. They could be greatly increased in number and effectiveness if only the state authorities directly charged with coöperative enterprise were properly bent upon realizing the intent of our coöperative credit union law—the best law on this subject in the whole United States. Our credit unions have largely failed of their purposes, because even more largely our state authorities have failed to see the need of such agencies in North Carolina and the potent part they might play in training farmers in the essentials of self-helping farm finance.

And next, our building and loan associations. They are more numerous, more active, and more prosperous in the towns and cities of North Carolina than in any other Southern state; but they need to be greatly increased in number, membership, and resources, and to extend their operations beyond town centers into the surrounding country regions, as in Ohio. A law already on our statute book authorizes this extension into farm areas, but our town needs are at present too great and our building and loan resources are too small to leave any surpluses to lend aspiring worthy farmers. If we can keep alive for a long term of years the B-and-L interest developed in North Carolina during the last twelve months, we can easily top the list of states in the ratio of dwellings owned by occupants. As it is, only one state stands ahead of us in this essential particular.

These are all self-help agencies, but they avail the thrifty alone. Many are called into the ownership of homes and farms, but only the thrifty are chosen.

Aside from these collateral social agencies, the way into landownership lies open to farmers endowed with sagacity—with what the farmers call hard horse-sense. Sagacity is the ability to think things through to safe conclusions. It is a personal quality that is fast developing into a social asset of farm community life and effort in North Carolina. Applied to farming it concerns (1) money crops produced on a bread-and-meat basis; (2) it concerns the distribution of farm wealth by the farmers themselves in coöperative marketing associations; (3) it concerns more and better meat and milk animals, a greater diversity of money products in commercial quantities, and a better balanced system of farming in the state at large; (4) it concerns farm industries—creameries, condenseries, and cheese factories, peanut cleaneries and peanut products, sweet potatoes prepared and stored for marketing throughout the twelve months, pork products—sausage, bacon, hams, shoulders, and the like—for sale by farm organizations in nearby or distant markets, as in Denmark, fruit packing and conserving plants, and so on and on. In every field of human effort—in farming, foresting, and mining alike—the direct producers of crude wealth are always at the bottom of the economic scale; it is the producers of finished products fit for final consumption, and the handlers of these products who get the bulk of the consumer's dollar.

It was sagacity applied to farming that devised Wisconsin's way out of bankruptcy in the eighteen eighties, and it must devise North Carolina's way out of farm poverty in the nineteen twenties. Otherwise the wealth that farmers produce will forever fail to stick to the palms that sweat it out. To the farmer that hath sagacity shall be added, and from him that hath it not, shall be taken away even that which he hath. This law of spiritual wealth works with the same fateful certainty in the field of economic enterprise, in town and country regions alike. Brain-sweaters have always lorded it over the back-sweaters. Education is the fundamental agency of progress, but the education that ripens into sagacity is at bottom the tenant's only chance, no matter what social or civic agencies lie at hand to help him. No matter what organic and statute laws may exist, they exist in vain for tenants who lack sagacity. With all their getting they must get what Solomon called wisdom and understanding, and it must be applied to farm production, farm distribution, farm wealth accumulation, and farm civilization in general.

The Place of Legislation

Nevertheless there is a proper place for legislative action in behalf of individual and social efforts at progress. Laws are like the retaining walls and the overhead arch in a tunnel through a sand bed—they support and preserve the results of progressive social enterprise. The tunnel would be impossible without the walls and the arch, and the walls and the arch would be useless without the tunnel. So it is in social progress of any

sort. For instance, coöperation as a form of business organization did not exist in law in any state of the Union twenty years ago. A corporation was a well defined legal entity and term, but a coöperation in any legal sense did not exist. And without legal definition, sanction, and supervision, a coöperative enterprise based (1) on the one-man-one-vote principle of control and (2) on dividends rated on business done through the organization as well as on stock owned, could not operate with either advantage or safety. Coöperating farmers were liable to indictment in the courts. They could be arrested as lawbreakers and tried as criminals are tried; they actually were so arrested and tried here and there in the United States. Coöperation law is just as necessary as corporation law.

And the same thing is true of credit law and credit institutions. Credit is ability and willingness to pay what is due exactly when it is due. It is the combined result of collateral and character. Every man—farmer, merchant, manufacturer, whatnot—creates his own credit; it is law that creates and regulates credit institutions. It is the business of borrowers to furnish collateral; it is the business of credit institutions to furnish accommodation. What is needed is (1) long-term credit accommodation for farm collateral offered for long-term loans at low rates of interest, and Congress has created land banks and other credit agencies to meet this particular need of the farmers. Congress alone is able to create such credit institutions on the large scale necessary. Federal Land Banks exist but they exist in vain for farmers who cannot offer proper collateral. They require farm land as collateral, and they serve land-owning farmers not landless tenants. Less than five percent of all the millions loaned by the federal land banks has gone to the landless tenants of the United States. What the best of tenants have is character and they have little else.

What worthy farm tenants need (2) is banks that capitalize character, and extend accommodation in personal-security loans in small amounts at low rates of interest running throughout the farm year. The coöperative credit union is the credit machinery that meets this need. It is sanctioned by law in some seventeen states but it has failed to develop into large proportions in country areas under state promotion, guidance and auditing supervision—even in North Carolina where its development shows the greatest progress in the Union. It is almost the sole hope of intelligent, industrious, and thrifty tenant farmers—of some 2,800 worthy white tenants and some 1,400 worthy negro tenants in North Carolina. Farm credit unions are a demonstrated success in every country of Europe; they are a failure in every state of America. What the states have failed to accomplish for landless men, the federal government must undertake, and it needs to be undertaken promptly on a large scale. Law cannot create collateral in goods and services, but it can create the machinery of credit accommodation, adjusted and administered to meet the peculiar needs of both tenants and landowning farmers. There is still much to be done in the field of farm credit institutions, if farm owners are to thrive, and if farm tenants are to have a decent chance to rise into ownership.

Other Obstacles to Ownership

In addition to the meager or the minus money returns to farming as a business in average years, there are certain obstacles in law and custom that paralyze the farmowner's interest in agriculture, and at the same time stifle the tenant's wish to own a farm. Farming don't pay, Ain't no money in it, If I own a farm I get taxed to death, The farmer's got no chance, I can make more money in a cotton mill, I can make more money doin a-most anything or nothing at all in town—these are the opinions we ran into in the farm tenant homes of Chatham county. They give expression to vaguely sensed facts. They are hard facts that exist in the country regions of Chatham county, North Carolina, and the Nation. And they are facts that must be reckoned with, or the day draws near when America will be asking, What shall we eat and wherewithal shall we be clothed? Already we are asking, What shall we do with the farm bloc in Congress and the agrarian revolt in general?

1. The fundamental obstacle to land ownership lies in the common law meaning of property. It is a meaning essentially negative. It is based on protection for the owner against the use of his own, without his free consent, by anybody else. It implies no positive obligation on part of the owner to make any use of it himself. It is hardly thinkable that the term could have any other meaning when applied to personal property, but when applied to property in land it has a dog-in-the-manger meaning that imperils the safety of civilization, or so it begins to appear. By what essential right human or divine may a man retain the possession of land that he will not or cannot put to productive uses? He has that right in common law, statute law, and organic law in every country of Christendom, but landless men are more and more beginning to question it. It is a question that involves more than law, it involves both ethics and religion, in the opinion of Isaiah of old, who pronounced a woe on Israel for joining house unto house and lot unto lot.

There are one million three hundred eighty thousand landless souls in North Carolina. More and more they are wondering about the one hundred thousand vacant town lots and the twenty-two million idle acres of farm land they look upon everywhere they turn in their home state—town lots and farm acres held out of productive use for speculative rises in value—held at prices that a full half of our people cannot afford to pay. What they see is land, land, everywhere and not a rood that the average wage-earner or farm-tenant can buy.

So it is in every state of the Union, with the result that the more populous and prosperous an area becomes the fewer are the people who own the houses they live in or the land they cultivate. It is Christendom's cruelest paradox. And no wonder men are beginning to question the common law meaning of property in land.

Estate or inheritance taxes, transfer taxes on increased sale values, progressive land taxes and the like are social ways of calling into question the rights of private property in land—in Belgium and Denmark, in

Great Britain, Australia, New Zealand, and Canada. Soon or late we shall have to resort to such remedies in America in behalf of the steadily increasing multitude of landless men. Students interested in this question are referred to Howe's Privilege and Democracy in America, Ghent's Benevolent Feudalism, Yetta Scheftel's The Taxation of Land Values, Rowntree's Land and Labor in Belgium, and Lusk's Social Welfare in New Zealand. The list is long, and these are just a few of the books that are best worth thumbing thoughtfully.

2. The second obstacle to land ownership lies in the heavy penalties laid on productive home and farm owners by the prevailing tax system of America. They are penalties so heavy that taxes, interest, repairs and insurance combined force the average man to rent rather than to own a farm or a home of his own. It is a tax system that imposes light or relatively light burdens on unimproved town lots and farm lands, and heavy burdens on lots and farms put to productive uses by enterprising owners. It is a system that rewards the inactive owner of idle lots and lands and punishes the wage-earner who buys a home or the tenant who buys a farm. The minute he ceases to be a tenant and becomes a home or a land owner, the taxgatherer darkens his door. For instance, the renters and croppers in the farm regions of North Carolina pay no taxes of any sort whatsoever, to the county, the state, or the federal government. Or so as a rule, because they own no land, and no personal property beyond the exemption of $300 per household. They no longer pay poll taxes as a condition of voting. They pay no state income tax because they have no income beyond the exemption of $2000 per family head and no federal taxes because they have no incomes beyond the exemption of $2,000 per family head. In the area surveyed only eleven of the fifty-one tenant farmers are on the township tax lists. Forty of them are as tax-free as the birds of the air. But the minute any one of these forty buys a farm he pays county taxes on the full value of his purchase or so much of it as the assessor wills, no matter how little the new owner may have paid on his little farm, or how much he may still owe. He improves his property and increases its value, whereupon the assessor increases its tax value and calls for more taxes. The more industrious he is the heavier his tax burden becomes. So it is everywhere under the uniform ad valorem tax system—the general property tax system of this and other states, a system that has been abolished for state support in North Carolina, but that still remains the basis of county and municipal taxation. One may well doubt the essential righteousness of a tax system that rewards inactivity and punishes industry, thrift, and enterprise.

As a result the wage earners in our cities and the farm tenants in our country regions tell you that it is cheaper to rent than to own homes and farms. And it is true almost everywhere in America. But what a pity it is! And how direful the menace to home life and responsible citizenship —to the foundations of national sanity, security, and stability!

Constructive Suggestions

In behalf of aspiring, capable, worthy tenants in the town and country regions of North Carolina, we offer the following recommendations—not so much for immediate adoption as for popular discussion aimed at changes in the tax laws of the state as rapidly as practical wisdom may dictate. The people of North Carolina cannot erect a stable commonwealth on the landless estate of men, and the sooner we face this fundamental truth the better.

For lack of space we are stating without discussing these recommendations.

First, we recommend constitutional changes that will permit the classification of property values and the tax rates thereon; which means the definite abandonment for all purposes of the ancient general property tax. For an excellent discussion of the general property tax see McPherson's chapter in the 1908 volume of the International Tax Association.

Second, the separate listing of real estate and the improvements thereon in both town and country areas; the rates on improvements to be made low enough to encourage and reward industry and enterprise.

Third, definitely low tax rates on homes occupied by the owners and on farms operated by the landlords thereof; definitely higher tax rates on unused or unimproved town lots and farm lands; and still higher rates on such lots and farm lands when owned by residents of other states and countries. Which means, progressive land taxes—beginning with low rates on small properties occupied or used for productive purposes by the owners thereof, followed by rates gradually increasing acording to acreage or value, with higher rates laid on unused, unimproved town lots and farm lands, and with the highest rates laid on such unused property when held by alien landlords.

The progressive land tax has been in force in New Zealand for thirty years. It took a score of years to put it on the law books of that country, and it will take a century or so to make it effective in bringing idle town lots and farm acres into productive use; so difficult is it to choke out of men the purely speculative interest in land ownership.

Such a law will be slow to get on the tax books of any state or country of the western world, and it will be slower still in accomplishing its purpose—namely, to give landless men a chance to own homes to live in and farms to cultivate. But we might as well begin to discuss it now in North Carolina.

Fourth, the taxing of the equities and nothing but the equities of home and farm owners, when the properties are occupied or operated by the owners themselves. As it is now, the owners of five-to-twenty-year mortgages amounting to $3000 or less are exempt from taxation in North Carolina, provided these mortgages cover money loaned to buy homes and call for 5 percent interest or less. If we can exempt the owners of such mortgages, surely we can exempt the owners of such homes from tax on the property covered by these mortgages.

The manifest purpose of these constructive suggestions is to encourage the increase of owned homes, farms, and productive businesses of every type, (1) by minimizing the tax burdens of small homeowners and small farmers and giving them a decent chance to hold their homes and farms, (2) by laying a penalty on the owners of idle lots and farms, (3) by encouraging enterprise with lower rates on real estate improvements and investments, and (4) by penalizing acquisitive capital of the miserly type and rewarding productive capital invested in active enterprises in North Carolina.

Fifth, a State Land Settlement Board, charged (1) with investigating the California plan of establishing farm colonies, and (2) reporting a feasible plan of state-aid to capable farm tenants in North Carolina. With 100,000 vacant city lots, twenty-two million acres of idle farm land, and one million three hundred and eighty thousand landless, homeless people, town and country, it is high time we were considering proposed remedies of any sort whatsoever.

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UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION

University of North Carolina Extension Bulletin

THE PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION

A HAND-BOOK FOR NORTH CAROLINA

Revised Edition

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA PRESS
Entered as second-class matter Sept. 1, 1921
Chapel Hill, N. C.

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EXTENSION BULLETIN

THE PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION

A HAND-BOOK FOR NORTH CAROLINA

Revised Edition

BY

HAROLD D. MEYER
Supervisor of Field Work, School of Public Welfare

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA PRESS
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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

To the Parent-Teacher Associations of North Carolina:

At the request of the Bureau of Public Discussion and with the approval of Dean N. W. Walker of the School of Education, Professor Harold D. Meyer of the Department of Sociology, in 1922, prepared a bulletin, the purpose of which was to encourage the organization of parent-teacher associations and to assist them with their meetings. So great was the demand for the bulletin that the edition was soon exhausted and a second one became necessary. Under these circumstances, the author has brought out this new bulletin, making the necessary and practicable changes, but the general plan has remained the same. Outlines have been worked out and reference books cited for outside reading. Package libraries and books have been secured for the use of those who follow these outlines and will be sent to those who make the necessary arrangements with the University Extension Division. The bulletin will be sent free of charge to every parent-teacher association in the State, as well as to high school principals and superintendents. A small charge will be made when more copies are required.

Leaders of parent-teacher association meetings are invited to call on the Bureau of Public Discussion for help with the programs and all assistance possible will be rendered.

For further information regarding this bulletin and the programs it contains, address

The Bureau of Public Discussion,
University Extension Division,
Chapel Hill, North Carolina.

January 11, 1923.

A MESSAGE TO THE PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION

From the State Superintendent of Public Instruction

A successful public school cannot be maintained without the coöperation of patrons, teachers and school officials. For many years it was thought that the governing board of a school represented the public. Therefore, little attention was paid to securing the coöperation of the individual patrons. The public school, however, should seek to promote not only the well-being of the individual pupil but unity, harmony and welfare of the entire community. No agency has come to the aid of the schools that has greater possibilities for good than the parent-teacher association.

It can give the teachers an understanding of the peculiar needs of the children, the helps or hindrances of home environment and the special needs of the children to which the school should address itself. It can bring about a coöperation of parents and teachers that can work together in a large way for the improvement of the community. In this way isolation, clannishness, and community strife may be overcome, for people learn one another when they work with common aims, and when they learn one another misunderstandings in the main disappear and harmony, as a rule, is the result. The best community is the one in which all of its citizens are active members of the local government.

The purpose of the parent-teacher association is in harmony with the modern spirit of coöperation that every rural community, every village and every citizen should be organized, in order that this spirit of coöperation may extend its educative values both to the parents and the children.

E. C. BROOKS,
State Superintendent of Public Instruction.

GREETINGS FROM THE STATE PRESIDENT

It is a great privilege to send through this bulletin a message to the parents and teachers of the State. The North Carolina branch of mothers and parent-teacher associations is indebted to the University and the editors who have made this bulletin possible.

Our State Association should forge ahead with a constructive program so that the children of North Carolina may be understood as they should be, loved as they ask to be and developed as they might be. As an orgainzation of parents and teachers, we believe that Education—physical, mental and moral—is no longer the privilege of a favored few but a necessity for all. Let us seek, therefore, to reach each city, village and rural community so that there may be an active Parent-Teacher Association in every public school in North Carolina.

Flossie H. (Mrs. J. F.) Spruill,

Pres. N. C. Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Assns.

PREFACE

This bulletin has been prepared with the idea that its use would promote generous coöperation among local community groups; that it would prove of value as a book of suggestions and sources; that it would stimulate the use of other materials and of original ideas; and that it would aid in developing a State-wide allegiance to the State Association. There are several new ideas given in this revised edition. The grade-mother plan, ideas for county and city councils, hints for high school units, and an illustration of how to obtain funds, are a few of the new features. Every thought has been to make it of practical value to the local unit. It is hoped that by these additions this issue will have been improved in its desire to serve. In this plan of working together and of utilizing the best resources the North Carolina Parent-Teacher Bulletin is of special importance. It is published monthly by the North Carolina College for Women in coöperation with the State Parent-Teacher Association. Its issues give generous promise of future good. It is therefore expected that this hand-book will be used in close correlation with the North Carolina Bulletin.

H. D. M.

PART I

THE PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION AT WORK

Ideals and Purpose

There is this happy circumstance about parent-teacher associations: they deal with fundamental human relationships. In the long road of the gradual development of human welfare, the child, the school and the home have constituted a large factor. In the long and trying history of the development of the school, the home has always played its major rôle; and in the slow but sure evolution of the teacher the parent has provided many an intermediary stage. And always the community itself has been a determining factor in the extent to which success has come to the school and the home and the child in their midst. Thus have these relationships been inseparably involved in the increasing approximation of the larger public welfare.

Likewise in the development of the individual himself there has always been a close relationship between the two social institutions, the home and the school. The child leaving the direct environment of the home enters, for the next step in proper growth, into the school. There the teacher is introduced to the child and becomes an agent in its development. So it can be easily understood why there should exist complete coöperation between parent and teacher. To further this end parent-teacher associations are established. Here, in an association whose ideals tend to promote the welfare of the child, parent and teacher meet for sympathetic understandings, for frank discussions of child problems, for the development of a greater love for childhood, and for making constructive criticisms and practical suggestions. All is done in full coöperation for the best interest of the child. Here personal rivalry is abandoned. The child is the central thought; selfishness and jealousies give

way to the advancement of the child. Here no politics exist. Here is an association full of the true spirit of democracy. It welcomes all parents, it invites constructive criticism, it calls for sincere interest and helpful efforts on the part of all who are interested in the real development of childhood.

If parents thoroughly understand the school, its teachers, its methods, its program of work, and its aims, ideals, and problems—if they would become acquainted with the teacher, visit the school, take active and sincere interest in its development, certainly many of the petty troubles of school relationships would vanish. And the clear understanding that will be obtained will bring about a greater and more vital growth in the work of the school and in its relationship to the child and the community.

If teachers, school supervisors and other school officials understand better the parent, the home, its environment, home methods of discipline, health conditions, community environment—if they would visit the parent, visit the homes, mingle more with the people of the community, study community problems, customs, relationships, certainly many of the troubles of parent relationship would not arise. On the other hand proper relationships would be established and community progress would result. The parent-teacher association endeavors to establish this type of relationship. In this way it hopes to foster the better community, the community of prosperous homes and happy, healthy childhood.

Organizing a Parent-Teacher Association

There are about one hundred parent-teacher associations in North Carolina. Should there not be an association for every school and as many members as there are parents, teachers and school patrons? "A Parent-Teacher Association in every school and every parent and teacher a member" is a good slogan for the year. The state association will scarcely be satisfied until this goal is approximated.

What then are the next steps? Should each community wait until a group of parents realize that there are certain outside

needs in the school for the proper development of their own children? And that these needs cannot be met except by means of the combined efforts of the community of parents and teachers working together? Or should all parents and teachers, assuming a greater need for all the children of the community, begin such an organization without awaiting some emergency or personal gain?

Preliminary Steps: The preliminary steps to the organization of any club are important. Here foundations are laid, understandings are begun and aims are set. At the very beginning it should be clearly understood by all that unity is the greatest factor in organization. In an association of this type, dealing so closely with complexities of human nature, perfect understanding and unity are highly desirable.

Since the association is a combination of parents and teachers and since it originates, in most instances, as the suggestion of parents, it is best to have close coöperation and support of all educational authorities of the state, county and local groups. Especially is this true of the local corps of teachers. With the full support of teachers a big forward step toward success is already made.

The next step is the call for the preliminary meeting. Through a clear understanding of the initial group, a preliminary meeting is held with representatives from such leading organizations as may be chosen, to which should be added also a representative group of teachers. It is best to have this meeting at the schoolhouse. It is understood that this is not the first official meeting of the association but an informal group to discuss the feasibility of organizing such an association.

Preliminary Meeting: At this meeting preparations are made for the first general meeting. It will be found best to work out every detail. Have it understood who shall start the general meeting and select the persons best fitted for temporary chairman and temporary secretary. Have it understood that a few leaders will make short and enthusiastic talks at the first meeting on such subjects as: History of parent-teacher associa-

tions, our State association, reasons for organizing, an outline program, what other associations are doing and have done, and the importance of a large membership. It is not best to have any long speeches. Following these talks the temporary chairman should open the meeting for general discussion. If the initial group will resolve to make the association something big in the life of the community and spend the time between their first meeting and the meeting of the general group working toward this goal, good results are sure to follow.

Time Between Preliminary Meeting and First General Meeting: One of the biggest factors during this time in the life of organizing is publicity. Much of the success of the association and the meetings will depend upon the publicity given it. What are some of the best means of advertising the first meeting? (These suggestions will also apply to all other meetings.)

(a) The newspaper is a splendid medium. Any newspaper of the state, county or local community will be pleased to give full space for aiding the parent-teacher association.

(b) Have children at school write letters about the meeting and carry them to their homes. Having the interest of the children is a big step forward.

(c) Attractive posters offer one of the best means of advertising the time, place of meeting, the purpose of meeting, and the general program. In every community there will be found local talent to assist in such publicity work, thus utilizing new sources of interest from the start. Place the posters in conspicuous and logical places such as post office, depot, drug stores, general stores, and school house.

(d) The churches may help. While the church may not always make a practice of announcing community gatherings it should be interested in this closely related agency and can help much in this way.

(e) A well planned series of telephone calls will be effective Divide the community telephones among the members of the initial group. Call the people of the community and tell them

about the meeting. Be sure to mention time and place and urge them to call someone else.

(f) Conversation with members of the community wherever met, on the street, elsewhere or on special calls will prove a good way of spreading the desired information.

2. Arrange a program for the first meeting. As a suggestion, have the children give a short program of songs, recitations or a play. The presence of children on the program will assure the attendance of most of the parents of the children involved.

3. All effort to make the first meeting entertaining and attractive will be found worthwhile. Where possible serve some light refreshments. Also have the meeting as informal as possible.

4. Write to the various official organizations of the association—national and state. Ask for information which will aid the local association. Ask for sample constitutions. These agencies will contribute much to the proper type of organization and will help in various ways from time to time.

The First Meeting: It is advisable to let the superintendent of the school start the meeting and have the teachers act as hostesses for the first meeting. Let them be on hand before the set time to welcome the community to the gathering. At the appointed time have the program begin. Begin on time; this will make a good impression. A good way to make folks feel at home and to set the audience at ease is to start with a community sing. Sing some of the favorite songs and insist that all sing.

After the preliminary program let the superintendent tell the purpose of the meeting. After briefly stating this, call for the election of a temporary chairman. Someone in the initial group should rise and say: "I nominate Mr. or Mrs. B..... for temporary chairman." The superintendent will say: "Are there any further nominations?" If there are none then he will say: "All in favor of Mr. or Mrs. B.....say 'Aye.' All opposed say 'No'." He will then declare the election. Call the elected chairman to the front and let him or her continue the

meeting. Should there be more than one nominated, conduct a vote for all those nominated and the person receiving the plurality vote will be declared elected.

The next step is the election of a temporary secretary. Proceed with this election in the same manner as for the election of temporary chairman. The temporary secretary should keep full and complete records of all that occurs at this meeting It is well to keep unusually full records at the beginning since they are matters of policy and of history. The temporary chairman should then thank the group for the election and begin with a formal message as to the purpose of the meeting and call for expressions of opinion. Here the members of the initial group give short talks on the subjects already mentioned. When the last talk is given a resolution, prepared before the meeting, resolving that a permanent organization of the parent-teacher association for the local community be perfected, should be presented. The temporary chairman then calls for the adoption of the resolution and if adopted appoints a committee to report at the next meeting. A time should then be set for the next meeting. After the business session is over either serve light refreshments or have a genuine get-to-gether.

Second Meeting: At the appointed time the meeting should be called to order by the temporary chairman. The temporary secretary reads the minutes of the first meeting and they are approved. The temporary chairman then calls for the report of the committee on constitution. The chairman of the committee reads the proposed constitution and makes comments. (Note. A good sample constitution for local organizations is printed on page 86.) A motion is made and seconded to adopt the constitution and if passed the constitution is read section by section and approved or changes made. After the adoption of the constitution the officers nominated are duly elected. They take their places at once. It is good to elect the chairmen of the various committees called for by the constitution and have the chairmen appoint the other members required on each committee.

From the time the constitution is adopted it becomes effective and the organization is governed by it.

Note: **In "Robert's Rules of Order"**—Revised Edition, 1915, page 284, is found a full parliamentary method of organizing clubs. It will be worthwhile to follow an authority of this type for all business procedure of the meetings.

Developing and Maintaining Interest in the Parent-Teacher Association

From a questionnaire sent to all the organized parent-teacher associations of North Carolina it was learned that a number of associations found it difficult to get the people of the community interested, to get them to attend meetings, or to keep the interest at the proper height after the organization had been perfected. While this is a problem everywhere, yet it is to be solved if the work is to be successful. There are no set ways or rules that will perfect interest or keep it. Every community and every association has its local color and it will take the individual strength of all interested, constantly working, to make the big majority interested and thus obtain results that will be vital to all. Nevertheless a few suggested ideas may be given which may be of some value in solving the particular and peculiar problems of the local association.

1. Every club should have specific and worthy purposes and be working for something all the time. The organization that lacks a motive cannot function except in a social way. Make the association a vital force in the community by being real builders and worthy doers.

2. Affiliate with the State Association and thereby be a part of the National Association. In this way much aid, many suggestions, and often personal supervision and direction will be obtainable. The larger units are working for the proper development of the local units.

3. Interest large numbers in the work of the association. Scatter responsibility. It may be that many in the community

feel that only a few are running things and trying to dominate the club. This should not be. The very purpose of the club calls for unselfish service. Have numbers working. When there is anything to do divide the work into as many parts as possible and place the interest accordingly. Anyone working for the association will most likely be interested.

4. Obtain the interest of the men. Men are parents too. The association is not restricted to woman members. Wherever possible elect a man for president. The writer has in mind two organizations that are functioning properly that have men as presidents. Give the men of the community something to do and the chances are they will become interested.

5. Choose a good time for meetings. The time element plays an important part. If the large majority of men cannot attend in the afternoons have the meetings in the evenings. If the evening meetings keep away a large number of parents not able to leave home at that time then place the meetings in the afternoons. It will be a matter of wise choosing. This can best be obtained by experience.

6. Advertise the meetings properly. This feature has been discussed under the heading of organizing. It must not be taken for granted that everyone knows about the meetings. It may be that there is a set time for meetings. If so, notices should be sent out beforehand.

7. Keep the association continually before the people. If it is functioning properly its work will speak for itself. Have the meetings well advertised and after every meeting have a write-up for the papers.

8. Keep the children interested. Having them write letters about the meetings and programs, now and then giving them a part on the program, will help hold interest. Constantly remind them of what the association is attempting to do for them and what has been accomplished.

9. Use outside forces when available and consistent with the advancement of the association. Get in touch with all the na-

tional, state and county agencies that are aiding community enterprises. In this way very valuable material is available.

10. Every association accomplishing anything needs funds. It is not a wise plan to ask for money at the meetings. Obtain funds either by membership drives or by community affairs such as plays, festivals and sales. A list of these methods is given in the next division. In fixing the yearly dues do not pauperize the association. Many associations have the small yearly dues of twenty-five cents. This is too small and besides, any member that is interested will gladly pay a fee of twice the amount or better still of four times this amount.

11. From time to time have membership drives. These drives will always succeed in listing a few people who have never been interested before. Offer prizes to the grade in the school for the largest number of new members obtained. Have membership drives conducted by members in some original method.

12. Do not have too many outside speakers. Use local talent most of the time. Occasionally have a feature program and open community gatherings.

13. Remember not to let the social part of the meetings be the feature. This is a secondary matter. The development of the childhood of the community is first. Nothing can do more harm than to have the association drift into a social club by too much entertaining and too little work.

14. Work for the upbuilding of the community in every way. A happy and prosperous community—spiritually, physically, morally, mentally and socially—will be more responsive to the needs of childhood than one that is the reverse. Whenever the community is uplifted in any way by any source it makes it easier for the association to accomplish the higher aims and lofty motives for the development of the community.

Funds for the Work of the Association

Attendance on the regular meetings should not be all for which the member enrolls. The association should function in

the community and in the school. From time to time, in order to carry on the work, funds will be needed. It is not wise to solicit or collect funds at regular meetings. Do not have the members feel that every time they attend a meeting they will be called on for funds. Rather, let the association plan ways and means of obtaining funds through community channels. The community at large will not hesitate to give when it feels that in return it is doing good, having a good time and enjoying fellowship. It is generally better to raise funds by community affairs rather than by individual subscriptions. A few suggested methods are here given:

1. Festivals—Holiday celebrations—such as May day. Have program and charge small fee. Valentine party, Armistice Day.

2. Parties—Children's parties, lawn parties, silver tea, indoor parties and receptions.

3. Concerts—Local talent, musical concerts, band concerts, old fiddlers' convention, victrola concerts and the like.

4. Feeds—Box suppers chicken stews, pie dinners, cake sales, oyster suppers, sandwich sales, candy sales.

5. Community Affairs—Community Christmas tree, community athletic field day, community picnic, community fair ,community circus.

6 Miscellaneous—Debates, plays, pageants, sings, school exhibits, spelling bees, popular girl contests, story hours and games, library night, illustrated lecture, moving pictures, rummage sales, carnivals, and a circus.

The community may have many other original ideas and methods. It may be that the local community utilizes the community chest or financial federation for raising funds. In this case, the parent-teacher association should have all its plans conform to the accepted community programs.

PART II

SUGGESTED PROGRAMS

THE PLAN

The programs of work for the association are most important. It is true that it is better to do than to talk about doing; it is, however, necessary to study conditions, to discuss problems, and to know situations before altering them or before making criticisms. It is also necessary to have the association assemble from time to time to receive inspiration, to catch a vision of the work as a whole and to divide the work properly among the various committees and individuals. It is also good for the community to study and know national and state issues and to obtain a variety of opinion on these subjects.

Whenever giving a program remember to study all problems in the light of the local community. Attempt every solution with the local group as the unit. Thus, the local community radiates into the neighboring sections and soon joins the work of other communities until the State Association is functioning through local units.

The programs given are for practical use. There are six main groups of programs with ten subject programs to each group. They are so arranged as to form yearly programs of ten meetings per year. Every subject in a group is related to the other subjects of the same group. It is not necessary that the entire group be followed. Associations may find it best to select programs from the various groups. There are in all sixty programs arranged for the use of association meetings.

The general plan of each program is as follows:

1. Subject for Study.
2. Topics for Discussion.
3. Suggested Types of Meetings.
4. General Suggestions.
5. References and Readings.

1. Subjects for Study: There are endless numbers of subjects for study. It is a difficult task to choose those which will be most interesting and at the same time function in the community. Some subjects of vital interest to the individual community may not be listed. Whenever a problem arises that needs immediate local consideration and solution or whenever it is possible that the services of an out-of-town speaker are available, give way from the regular meeting to the special meeting. The subjects listed may be studied in group form as yearly programs or individual subjects chosen from among the sixty given.

2. Topics for Discussion: For the convenience of those who are to be on the program the subject is divided into five topics They are given as workable suggestions and to give an insight into the subject chosen. It is not necessary that they be followed slavishly. Where there is only one speaker on the program the topics may serve as an outline for the speaker. Where two or more are to be on the program the topics may serve as subjects for their remarks.

3. Suggested Types of Meetings: To add interest to the meetings vary the methods of presenting the programs. Different subjects will call for different types of presentation. It will be surprising to find how many varieties of meetings can be given. It may be that many suggestions for one meeting may be used for another. Originality applied to the types of meetings will serve to make them interesting.

4. General Suggestions: Under this heading a few general ideas and important suggestions are given. Every meeting and every subject present something new. To present the subject so as to give the audiences the proper impressions is worthwhile. To "get-across" the desired message will call forth the best that is in the members giving the program. These suggestions are to aid in accomplishing these things.

5. References: A subject is a useless thing unless it is possible to have someone available who knows about it or to be able to obtain books, bulletins and other helps from which to gather

information. The references and readings given in the programs are provided by the University Library. Through the Bureau of Public Discussion of the University Extension Division package libraries are made, dealing with the subjects given. They are sent out to the communities to aid them in developing programs. Write to Miss Nellie Roberson, Bureau of Public Discussion, University Extension Division, Chapel Hill, N. C. The Bureau will give every assistance possible. The references given are but a few of the many on all the subjects and if further material is needed, ask for it. In writing for the package state subject and time of meeting.

SUBJECTS FOR PROGRAMS

Group I.—THE SCHOOL BUILDING AND GROUNDS

Subject 1. The School Building.
Subject 2. The School Grounds.
Subject 3. School Equipment.
Subject 4. Beautifying the School Grounds.
Subject 5. The Playground at School.
Subject 6. The School Garden.
Subject 7. The School Sanitaries.
Subject 8. The Water Supply for the School.
Subject 9. Consolidation of Schools.
Subject 10. The School as a Community Center.

Subject 1. **The School Building.**

Topics for Discussion:

1. Is the building adequate for the needs of the community?
2. What is the general condition of the building?
3. Is the building properly lighted?
4. Is the building heated?
5. Is the building properly ventilated?

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular club meeting with members leading discussion.
2. An open meeting with the community.
3. Some authority on school architecture to lecture.
4. Illustrated lecture showing buildings, proper methods of heating, lighting and ventilating.

General Suggestions:

Stress the fact that the school building is owned by the community.

It expresses civic pride.

Study proper and modern methods of heating, lighting, and ventilating the school buildings.

Study modern types of school building plans and architecture.

Coöperate with school officials.

References.

Williams, L. A., The Construction of Schoolhouses, University of North Carolina Extension Division, Chapel Hill. 1920. Contains bibliographies.
Edmondson, E. H., Suggested Programs of Study and Work for Parent-Teacher Associations. University of Indiana Extension Division, Bloomington, Ind. 1921. Contains bibliographies.
Dresslar, F. B., Rural School Houses and Grounds, Bulletin Whole No. 585, U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington. 1914.
Mills, W. T., American School Building Standards, Franklin Educational Publishing Co., Columbus, Ohio. 1915.

Subject 2. The School Grounds.

Topics for Discussion:

1. The location, shape, size, and development of grounds.
2. The general division of grounds—ornamental, play area, and school gardens.
3. The ornamental grounds.
4. The play area.
5. The school gardens.

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular club meeting with members leading discussion.
2. Open air meetings, members surveying grounds, suggest practical methods of better development.
3. Illustrated lectures on school grounds.

General Suggestions:

Develop community pride in beautification of grounds.
Carry the beautification movement into every garden.
Set aside special days for committees to work on grounds, planting flowers, developing play area and the like.

References:

Same as for No. 1.

Subject 3. School Equipment.

Topics for Discussion:

1. Has the school proper equipment needed for work?
2. Are the desks, blackboards, and tables of the proper type?
3. What can be done for curtains, pictures, flowers and many attractive features of this kind?
4. How do the pupils care for their books?
5. What are the needs and how can they be met?

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Let the teachers lead this discussion.
2. Have a survey of the equipment by dividing the club into small groups and have the teachers lead in the survey. Report from this survey.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

Every business man likes to have a well equipped office.

Every workman likes to have good tools with which to do work.

Every housekeeper wants modern conveniences.

Work at school is greatly handicapped by poor equipment.

Study modern methods of equipment.

Study the text-book problems.

REFERENCES:

Same as for No. 1.

Subject 4. Beautifying the School Grounds.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. The general appearance of the grounds.
2. Walks and paths of school grounds.
3. Flowers and shrubbery of the grounds.
4. The fence and border of the grounds.
5. What can be done for development.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular club meeting with members leading.
2. Practical out-door meeting, survey of grounds, suggesting development.
3. Have a flower meeting. Members bring seeds, cuttings and plants for planting.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

Study the grounds before planning.
Plan with some future development in view.
Give special attention to walks and borders.

Carry the movement into home gardens.

REFERENCES:

Coker, W. C., and Hoffman, Eleanor, Design and Improvement of School Grounds. University of North Carolina Extension Division, Chapel Hill. 1921.

Subject 5. The Playground at School.

Topics for Discussion:

1. The play area of the school grounds.
2. Laying out the playground.
3. Equipping the playground.
4. Some pieces of home-made equipment.
5. The value of the playground.

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular club meeting with members leading.
2. Having a supervisor of playgrounds lecture.
3. Have a deomonstration meeting by school children in the way of a field day of games.
4. Practical meeting in aiding the pupils in making home-made equipment.

General Suggestions:

Carefully plan the play area.
Carefully place play equipment.
Use space to greatest advantage for largest number.
Make a study of the philosophy of play.
Correlate with this meeting, games, health and ethics.

References:

Edmondson, Edna H., Suggested Programs of Study and Work for Parent-Teacher Associations. University of Indiana Extension Division. Bloomington. 1921. Contains bibliographies.

Layout and Equipment of Playgrounds. Community Service. One Madison Avenue, New York City. 1921.

Curtis, H. S., The Reorganized School Playground. U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

Meyer, Harold D., The Rural Playground, University of North Carolina Extension Division, Chapel Hill. 1921.

Subject 6. The School Garden.

Topics for Discussion:

1. The general value of the school garden.
2. Correlating the theory and practice of agriculture.
3. The aid *of* and *to* the home of school gardens.
4. Marketing the school garden products.
5. Interesting stories of school gardening.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. The home and farm demonstration agents as lecturers.
3. Joint meeting of parent-teacher association and farmers' organizations of community.
4. Practical demonstration lesson by pupils.
5. Luncheon of school garden products to members.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

Encourage this type of education.
Give spacious areas for developing at home.
Encourage the buying of products.
Study the marketing situation of the community.
Study the chief agricultural products of the community.

REFERENCES:

Coker, W. C., and Hoffman, Eleanor, Design and Improvement of School Grounds. University of North Carolina Extension Division. Chapel Hill. 1921.
Greene, Maria Louise, Among School Gardens, Charities Pub. Committee, New York. 1911.
Hemenway, H. D., How to Make School Gardens, Doubleday, Page, New York. 1909.

Subject 7. The School Sanitaries.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. The type of sanitary in the school.
2. The different types of sanitary sanitaries.
3. Keeping the sanitary sanitary.
4. Diseases traceable to improperly kept sanitaries.
5. The responsibility of this problem.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular club meeting with members leading.
2. Have health officer to lecture and demonstrate.
3. Have some local doctor lecture.
4. Round table discussion of this problem.
5. Demonstration of different types of sanitaries.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

Stress the importance of this question.
Make a thorough study of the situation, suggest and solve.
Study diseases common to the sanitaries.
Do not neglect the moral side of the question.
Stress the fact that it is a community problem.

References:

Saville, Thorndike, Sanitation in the South, University of North Carolina Extension Division. Chapel Hill. 1919.
Williams, L. A., The Construction of School Houses. University of North Carolina Extension Division, Chapel Hill. 1920.
Dresslar, F. B., School Hygiene. Macmillan Co., New York City. 1916.
State Reconstruction Studies, No. 41, University of North Carolina Extension Division, Chapel Hill. 1921.

Subject 8. The Water Supply.

Topics for Discussion:

1. The general values of proper water supply.
2. Sources of water contaminations.
3. Keeping the supply clean and plentiful.
4. From the well or faucet to the mouth of the pupil.
5. The common drinking cup or dipper—the sanitary way.

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular club meeting with members leading.
2. Have health officer or local doctor lecture.
3. A community meeting to study problem as a community affair.

General Suggestions:

Stress the value of a pure water supply.
Make first-hand studies of water supply.
Have the water examined.
Banish forever the common drinking cup or dipper.
Teach fundamental principles of sanitation.

References:

Saville, Thorndike, Sanitation in the South, University of North Carolina Extension Division, Chapel Hill. 1919.
Kerr, J. W., and Moll, A. A., Common Drinking Cups and Roller Towels, U. S. Public Health Service, Treasury Department, Bulletin No. 57, Washington, D. C.

Subject 9. Consolidation of Schools.

Topics for Discussion:

1. The general movement of consolidation.
2. Benefits of consolidation.
3. Arguments against consolidation and answers.
4. Examples of successful consolidations.
5. Consolidation in the local community.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Have county superintendent lecture on consolidation.
3. Visit consolidated schools and study.
4. If school is not consolidated—study methods of procedure toward consolidation.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

Consolidation will solve many of the present ailments of the small schools.

Study the movement from the financial standpoint.

Make special efforts to interest those opposed to the movement.

REFERENCES:

Knight, E. W., The Consolidation of Rural Schools. University of North Carolina Extension Division, Chapel Hill. 1920. Contains bibliography.
Package Library of 7 pieces. University Extension Library Service, Chapel Hill.
Cubberley, E. P., Rural Life and Education, Houghton Mifflin, Boston, 1914.

Subject 10. The School as a Community Center.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. The school as a community builder.
2. Why the school should be the community center.
3. Agencies and organizations using the school.
4. The future citizens of the community.
5. Values of having the school the community center.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular club meeting with members leading.
2. Open community meeting with general discussion.
3. Evening lecture on subject.
4. Community get-together on grounds. Dinner and speeches.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

Stress the fact that the children of the community gather there every day of the school year.

It is generally located for the convenience of the largest number.

It is the most democratic organization of the community.

It is a building owned by the community.

REFERENCES:

Bittner, W. S., The Community School House, Indiana University Extension Division, Bloomington. 1915.
Edmondson, Edna H., Suggested Programs of Study and Work for Parent-Teacher Associations, Indiana University Extension Division, Bloomington. 1921.
Jackson, H. E., A Community Center, Macmillan Co., N. Y. 1918.

Group II.—CHILD WELFARE

Subject 11. The Rights of Childhood.
Subject 12. Our Child Problem in North Carolina.
Subject 13. Infant Welfare.
Subject 14. School Children.
Subject 15. Juvenile Courts.
Subject 16. Child-Caring Institutions.
Subject 17. The Delinquent Child.
Subject 18. The Dependent and Neglected Child.
Subject 19. The Defective Child.
Subject 20. The Future Citizen.

Note—The general plan of these programs with the subjects follows closely the program of the State Board of Charities and Public Welfare on Child Welfare. It is especially urged that the work of the board be known and their general plan followed.

Subject 11. **The Rights of Childhood.**

Topics for Discussion:

1. Healthful childhood.
2. Educated childhood.
3. Happy and protected childhood.
4. Patriotic childhood.
5. Religious childhood.

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. General open community meeting (inspirational).
3. Some successful mothers to talk.
4. Some expert on child welfare to lecture.

General Suggestions:

This series of subjects forms the basis of all the fundamental studies of the association.
Stress the rights of childhood.
Study ways of giving these rights to every child.
Apply them to the individual child.
Test them as to the children of the community.

REFERENCES:

Key, Ellen K. Sofia. The Century of the Child. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York City. 1909.
Mangold, G. B., Child Problems, Macmillan Co., New York City. 1910.
McKeever, W. A., Outlines of Child Study, Macmillan Co., New York City.
Child Welfare Program, State Board of Charities and Public Welfare, Raleigh, N. C.. 1921.

Subject 12. **Our Child Problems in North Carolina.**

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. Children of North Carolina.
2. The child problems as shown by the selective draft act.
3. What is being done in North Carolina.
4. The work of other states in child welfare.
5. The child welfare program of the State Board of Charities and Public Welfare.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Commissioner of public welfare to lecture.
3. Some school leader to talk.
4. Lecture by child welfare officer of state.
5. Lecture by superintendent of public welfare of county.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

Everyone should know the problems of child welfare.
Study what is being done and affiliate with the work.
Know what other states are doing.
Know the child welfare program of the state board and aid them in any way.

REFERENCES:

Swift, W. H. Child Welfare in North Carolina. National Child Labor Committee, New York City.
Child Welfare Program, State Board of Charities and Public Welfare, Raleigh, N. C. 1921.

Subject 13. **Infant Welfare.**

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. Pre-natal care of the mother.
2. Instruction in care of child.
3. Proper diet and care of children of pre-school age.
4. Diseases common to infants.
5. The general care of the infant.

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Health nurse to lecture.
3. Some authority on subject to lecture.
4. Round table discussion by group.

General Suggestions:

This is a subject of vital importance.
Study the new Sheppard-Towner maternity bill.
Study the statistics of death from child-bearing.
Study the number of children dying before they reach six.
What is the condition in your community?

References:

Read, Mary Lillian, Mothercraft Manual, Little Brown & Co., Boston. 1916.
Package Libraries, University of North Carolina Extension Division, Chapel Hill, N. C.

Subject 14. School Children.

Topics for Discussion:

1. The school children of our community.
2. Wholesome and healthful school surroundings.
3. Wholesome supervised recreation.
4. Children's organizations.
5. Importance of the child's environment.

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Some expert of children's work to lecture.
3. The county or local superintendent of schools to lecture.
4. Study group of statistics on the subject.

General Suggestions:

This is the heart of the club's endeavors.
Make a thorough survey of school conditions and surroundings.
Know the kind of club or group in which the boy or girl is interested.
Strive to have the environment the best.

References:

Hartshorne, Hugh., Childhood and Character. Pilgrim Press. Boston. 1919.

Subject 15. Juvenile Courts.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. The juvenile court laws of North Carolina.
2. Methods of procedure.
3. Juvenile court cases.
4. The juvenile offender and his case.
5. The juvenile offender and the case of society.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Juvenile court judge to lecture.
3. Probation officer to lecture.
4. Round table discussion for community study.
5. Some leader of boys work to lecture or lead the discussion.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

Study the progress of the juvenile court.
What is the juvenile offender condition in the community?
Why the juvenile offender?
Is the jail the proper place for him?
What is the best solution of the question?
Is the visiting-teacher a good juvenile court office?

REFERENCES:

Flexner, Bernard, and Baldwin, Roger N., Juvenile Courts and Probation. The Century Co., New York City. 1916.
Mangold, George B. Mangold, Macmillan Co., New York City. 1920.
State Reconstruction Studies, No. 41, University of North Carolina Extension Division, Chapel Hill, 1921.
George, W. R., Junior Republic, D. Appleton & Co., New York. 1912.
Child Welfare Program, State Board of Charities, Raleigh, N. C.

Subject 16. Child-Caring Institutions of the State.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. State child-caring institutions.
2. Maternity homes.
3. Private child-caring institutions.
4. Child-placing and child-placing societies.
5. Type and study of children in child-placing.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Some official of some child-caring institution to speak.
3. Some official of the State Department of Public Welfare to speak.
4. If possible—visits to child-caring institutions.

General Suggestions:

Make a careful survey of the community and see if all children are cared for and protected.

Study methods of child-placing.

Where possible break home ties as method of last resort.

References:

Publications of State Board of Charities and Public Welfare, Raleigh, N. C.
Social Laws and Agencies of North Carolina, School of Public Welfare, University of North Carolina.
McKeever, William A., Training the Boy, Macmillan Co., New York City. 1915.
McKeever, William A., Training the Girl, Macmillan Co., New York City. 1914.
Gruenberg, S. M., Your Child, Lippincott, Philadelphia. 1913.

Subject 17. The Delinquent Child.

Topics for Discussion:

1. Delinquency and the child.
2. Causes of delinquency.
3. Delinquency and the community.
4. Solving the problems of delinquency.
5. Cases of delinquency.

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Round table discussion with group study.
3. Some official of State Department of Public Welfare to lecture.
4. Some authority of the subject to speak.
5. The County Superintendent of Public Welfare to speak.
6. Study groups making surveys and studying statistics of other states.

General Suggestions:

This and the next two subjects are closely related and will be studied together.

Having made a thorough study of these factors the community has made a good survey of the child.

Always study with two ends in view—the welfare of the child and the good of the community.

References:

Breckinridge, S. P., The Delinquent Child and the Home. Charities Publication Committee. New York City. 1912.
Publications of State Board of Charities and Public Welfare, Raleigh, N. C.
Social Laws and Agencies of North Carolina, School of Public Welfare, University of North Carolina.

Subject 18. **The Dependent and Neglected Child.**

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. Dependent and neglected children.
2. The home and the dependent or neglected child.
3. The community and the dependent or neglected child.
4. What may be done by juvenile courts and superintendents of Public Welfare.
5. Cases of dependent and neglected children.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

Same as for subject 17.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

Same as for subject 17.

REFERENCES:

Same as for No. 17.

Subject 19. **The Defective Child.**

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. The defective child.
2. General physical defects of childhood.
3. What may be done to eliminate these.
4. The defective child and education.
5. The defective child and the community.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

Same as for subject 17.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

Same as for subject 17.

REFERENCES:

Treadway, W. L., and Lundberg, E. O., Mental Defect in a Rural County. Bulletin No. 48. 1919. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.
Goddard, H. H., Human Efficiency and Levels of Intelligence, Princeton University Press, Princeton, N. J. 1920.

Subject 20. **The Future Citizen.**

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. The rights of childhood.
2. What the community owes the future citizen.
3. The future citizen and citizenship.
4. The future citizen today.
5. The future citizen and the future state.

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1 Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Some distinguished citizen of today to talk.
3. Open meeting of community with future citizens as guests.
4. Picnic with future citizens as guests and speaking.
5. Pageant with the future citizen in proper relation with community as theme.

General Suggestions:

Have this an inspirational meeting of the highest type.
Endeavor to have as many children present as possible.
Use this meeting as a membership drive meeting.
This will be a good opening or closing meeting.

References:

Cabot, Ella Lyman, A Course in Citizenship and Patriotism. Houghton Mifflin, Boston. 1918.

Group III.—EDUCATIONAL AIMS AND SCHOOL LAWS

Subject 21. Training for Citizenship.
Subject 22. Americanization.
Subject 23. Elimination of Illiteracy.
Subject 24. Vocational Training.
Subject 25. Physical Training.
Subject 26. Teaching Thrift.
Subject 27. Compulsory Education Law.
Subject 28. Child Labor Law.
Subject 29. Financing the Schools.
Subject 30. Some Proposed School Legislation.

Subject 21. **Training for Citizenship.**

Topics for Discussion:

1. The real meaning of citizenship.
2. Ideals of citizenship.
3. Methods of training for citizenshp.
4. Patriotism and citizenship.
5. The community and citizenship.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. The school superintendent or teacher to talk.
3. Patriotic program bringing out the citizenship idea.
4. Some out-of-town speaker, having an inspirational meeting.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

This is one of the leading topics of the present educational program.

Study the subject from the national as well as local viewpoint.

Apply principles of citizenship in practical ways.

REFERENCES:

Allen, W. H. Universal Training for Citizenship, Macmillan Co., New York City. 1917.

Cabot, Ella Lyman, A. Course in Citizenship and Patriotism, Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston. 1918.

Hamilton, J. G. deR., and Knight, E. W., Education for Citizenship. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. 1921.

Jenks, J. W., Citizenship and the Schools. Henry Holt & Co., New York City. 1906.

Subject 22. Americanization.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. The meaning of Americanization education.
2. Training the resident persons of foreign birth or parentage.
3. Immigration and Americanization.
4. Aims of Americanization.
5. Promoting national unity and solidarity.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Some civic official to talk.
3. General open community meeting with speaker.
4. Group study of immigration and its problems.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

The problem of immigration is an important one.

The assimilation of the foreign elements is necessary.

Study the problems and know what is being done.

Study the local immigration situation—if any.

Form study groups to make a thorough study of this subject. It is interesting.

References:

Dixon, Royal, Americanization. Macmillan Co., New York City. 1916.
Package Libraries: University Extension Library Service, Chapel Hill, N. C.

Subject 23. Eliminating Illiteracy.

Topics for Discussion:

1. Illiteracy in the United States, in North Carolina and in the local community.
2. The illiterate.
3. The illiterate and the community.
4. What is being done to help eliminate illiteracy.
5. Lowering the percentage of illiteracy in the local community.

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Some prominent social worker to speak.
3. Study group of the local situation and condition.
4. County superintendent of schools to give talk.
5. Practical work in eliminating illiteracy.

General Suggestions:

There is too much illiteracy in most communities.
Make a survey of the number and see what may be done.
Set as a standard—100 per cent literate.
Study the evils of ignorance and illiteracy.

References:

Publications from office of Superintendent of Public Instruction, Raleigh, N. C.
State Reconstruction Studies, No. 41, University of North Carolina Extension Division, Chapel Hill, 1921.

Subject 24. Vocational Training.

Topics for Discussion:

1. Types of vocational training and general value.
2. Manual arts in the school curriculum.
3. Home economics in the school curriculum.
4. Part-time schools and education in trades and industries.
5. Agriculture in the school curriculum.

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Have teachers of the various vocational subjects to lead.
3. Have some state or national field agent to speak.
4. Practical meeting with an exhibit of work by school children.
5. Have pupils give papers on the value of the work.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

This is one of the leading subjects of modern educational thought. Make it a part of the school curriculum of the local community. Especially stress the advantage of certain subjects for local color.

REFERENCES:

Publications from State Board of Vocational Education, Raleigh, N. C.

Subject 25. Physical Training and Development.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. Physical training as a part of the school program.
2. State requirements in physical training.
3. Advantages of good physical training.
4. Physical training and the future citizen.
5. General physical training in the community.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Some expert in physical training to lecture.
3. Demonstration meeting with children leading.
4. A survey of physical condition of children with a program of development.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

This is a subject that is vital to the best development of the community.

Encourage its promotion and program.

Study the effects of no physical training.

If possible, have a trained leader in this work.

REFERENCES:

Publications from State Bureau of Community Service, Raleigh, N. C.
Camp, Walter Chauncey, Keeping Fit All the Way, Harper and Bros., New York City. 1919.
Bulletins of various State Departments of Education.

Subject 26. Teaching Thrift.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. Values for character development in thrift.
2. Making an early start with the thrift movement.
3. Thrift clubs and thrift aids.
4. Thrift in home and community life.
5. Experiences and stories of thrift.

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Some government agent to speak.
3. Experience meeting with stories of thrift.
4. Children to tell ways of thrift.

General Suggestions:

The United States Government is interested in this subject and will give aid.

Find ways to allow the children to earn and then teach thrift.

Encourage thrift.

Study character development in men and women who know thrift.

References:

Outline of Lessons to Teach Thrift, U. S. Government Treasury Department, Washington, D. C.
Brown, Mary Wilcox, The Development of Thrift. Macmillan Co., N. Y., 1900.
Haskin, F. J., How Other People Get Ahead. U. S. Treasury Department, Government Printing Office, Washington, 1919.

Subject 27. Compulsory Education Law.

Topics for Discussion:

1. The North Carolina compulsory education law.
2. Enforcing the law.
3 Non-attendance of school—its effect on child, school and community.
4. The truant problem and solution.
5. Bettering the compulsory education law.

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Truant officer to talk.
3. County superintendents of schools to explain law.
4. Group study of community situation.

General Suggestions:

This is a good law and needs the support of every association to make it a better law.

Aid in keeping the law.

Develop an attractiveness at the school to hold the child.

Make the school inviting.

Coöperate with officials in performance of duties.

REFERENCES:

Publications of State Board of Education, Raleigh, N. C.
State Reconstruction Studies, No. 41. University of N. C. Extension Division, Chapel Hill. 1921.

Subject 28. The Child Labor Law.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. North Carolina's child labor law.
2. The national law and its enforcement.
3. The child labor problem in the community.
4. North Carolina child labor commission.
5. Child labor and the community.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leadings.
2. Government official to lecture.
3. Illustrated lecture.
4. State official from the Department of Public Welfare.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

While this is a problem of welfare it is directly related to school.

Close the doors of the factory to children and open the doors of the school.

Encourage the enforcement of the law.

Study the results of child labor.

Study the question from the future viewpoint.

Publications of the National Child Labor Committee, 105 East 22d Street. New York City.
Spargo, John, The Bitter Cry of the Children, Macmillan Co., New York City. 1915.
Publications of State Board of Charities and Public Welfare, Raleigh, N. C.

Subject 29. Financing the Schools.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. Financing the state schools.
2. Local tax and local means of financing the school.
3. Taxation for education.
4. Bonds for school improvements.
5. Education as an investment.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. County commissioners to talk.
3. County representative or senator to talk.
4. Open meeting for raising school funds.
5. Practical meeting in aiding bond election.

General Suggestions:

Everyone should be interested and know about the ways and means of financing education.

Encourage the development of school in the community.

Help in all elections for development.

Study these questions from a future standpoint as well as present.

References:

Publications of State Board of Education, Raleigh, N. C.
State Reconstruction Studies, No. 41, U. N. C., Extension Division.
Social Laws and Agencies of North Carolina, School of Public Welfare, University of North Carolina.

Subject 30. Some Proposed School Legislation.

Topics for Discussion:

1. Some proposed school laws.
2. Will they develop or hinder development.
3. What is the effect of the propesed law on the individual and on the community?
4. What are some of the needs of education that may be legalized?
5. Working for constructive educational legislation.

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Representative or senator in state legislature to explain proposed laws.
3. Planning laws for educational development.

General Suggestions:

Show active interest in any proposed law to develop education.

Study the law and see if it deserves support.

Do not accept any and every law for schools.

Study the situation and see what may be done to improve things.

Never encourage the tearing down of laws that have been made where they are constructive.

References:

Publications of N. E. A., Hugh MacGill, Washington, D. C. (History of the Towner-Sterling Bill can be secured by writing to Hugh MacGill).

Group IV.—PART I: THE TEACHER
PART II: SOME SCHOOL PROBLEMS

Subject 31. **The Teacher and the Community.**

Subject 31. The Teacher and the Community.
Subject 32. The Teacherage.
Subject 33. Teachers' Salaries and Preparation.
Subject 34. Shortage of Teachers.
Subject 35. School Organization and Reports.
Subject 36. The Daily Program of School Work.
Subject 37. How to Study.
Subject 38. Discipline.
Subject 39. Retardation and Backward Children.
Subject 40. Music, Art and Expression in the School.

Subject 31. The Teacher and the Community.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. What the teacher means to the community.
2. What the community means to the teacher.
3. What the teacher owes the community.
4. What the community owes the teacher.
5. Teacher and parent in full coöperation for the good of the child.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Have a general representative meeting of parents and teachers with a round table discussion.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

Remember this meeting is best in results when made practical in coöperation.

A thorough understanding of parent and teacher is half the school battle.

A clear understanding prevents so much unnecessary trouble.

Encourage the association of parent and teacher.

REFERENCES:

McFee, Inez N., The Teacher, The School and the Community, A. B. C., New York, 1918.
Hart, J. K., Educational Resources of Village and Rural Communities, Macmillan Co. 1914.

Subject 32. The Teacherage.

Topics for Discussion:

1. The non-resident teacher and her home in the community.
2. A teacherage in the community.
3. Benefits of a teacherage.
4. How a teacherage is obtained, kept up and supplied.
5. Examples of successful teacherages.

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. If there is a teacherage in the community have the teachers to entertain the association there.
3. Have a teacher from a neighboring teacherage talk about the teacherage to the association.

General Suggestions:

The housing of non-resident teachers in the community is a problem.

The teacher should have entrance into the best homes.

A happy and healthy surrounding and home will make for the best work.

The teacherage offers the teachers a home that they may call their own.

References:

The University News Letter, Vol. III, No. 23, Chapel Hill, N. C.
Cottages for Country School Teachers, World's Work, 32:266, Jl. '16.
Need of Teacher's Homes, Mrs. P. V. Pennybacker, Ladies Home Journal 32: 25, Feb. '15.
School Manse. School and Society, 7:772-3, Je. 29, '18.
Teacherages, J. S. Pardee, Country Life, 29:24, Mr. '16.

Subject 33. Teachers' Salaries and Preparation.

Topics for Discussion:

1. The salary schedule of local teachers.
2. Salaries of neighboring teachers and the salary schedule of the state.
3. The preparation for service.
4. Normal training and its value.
5. Is the laborer worthy of his or her hire?

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. A defense and plea for better salaries by civic leaders of the community.
3. Application lesson by teachers—giving salaries, standards of living, earnings, etc.
4. An open discussion of the question by local members of the board.
5. Lecture by county superintendent.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

Make a close study of teacher's salary and cost of living.
Require the best of preparation when paying good salaries.
Have the teachers give their side of this problem.
Study the question of paying for the year around.

REFERENCES:

Evenden, E. S., Teachers' Salaries and Salary Schedules, Commission Series No. 6, N. E. A. Washington, D. C. 1919.
Better Pay and Better Teachers. P. P. Claxton. Forum 64: 346-51 N. '20.
Snow Shovelers and School Teachers. Lit. Digest 64: 34-5. Mar. 6, 1920.
Teachers' Salaries. R of R's. 61: 316-17, Mar., 20.
Teachers' Salaries and the Wages of Unskilled Labor. School and Soc. 11: 176-7, F. 7. '20.
Teachers' Salaries in General. School and Soc. 11: 27 Ja. 3, '20.

Subject 34. The Shortage of Teachers.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. Reasons for the shortage.
2. Ways of attracting people into the profession.
3. The teacher before and after the war.
4. Benefits of having numbers into the profession.
5. Methods of licensing teachers in the state.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Expert from state department or national bureau to lecture.
3. Statistical meeting with charts and diagrams.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

This problem is vital to every community.
Study the national and local situation.
Make a study of the percentage of men in the profession.
Study ways of attracting teachers to the community and of keeping them there when they are giving good service.

References:

Shortage of High School Teachers. School and Soc. 12:50, Jl. 10 '20.
Shortage of Teachers in the United States. School Review 28: 89-90, F. '20.
Teacher Crisis. F. W. Wright. Educa. 40: 548-50, My. '20.

Subject 35. School Organization and Reports.

Topics for Discussion:

1. The organization of the community school.
2. Officers in authority and their duties.
3. Explanation of the report system.
4. The health report cards.
5. Coöperation of parent and teacher in the matter of handling reports.

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Connty superintendent to explain organization plan of county.
3. Local superintendent to explain the report card plan. Practical meeting with demonstration cards showing system of grading, marking and signing.

General Suggestions:

It is well to know the plan of school organization.

Also to know those in authority and their principal duties.

Monthly or weekly report cards are necessary to proper school functioning and complete support of parents in the matter of signing the cards and returning them promptly is important.

References:

Alexander, Carter, School Statistics and Publicity, Silver Burdett, New York City. 1919.
Cubberley, E. P., Public School Administration, Houghton Mifflin, Boston, 1916.

Subject 36. The Daily Program of School Work.

Topics for Discussion:

1. The daily program of work and examples from different grades.
2. The time element and the daily program.
3. Number of periods per day and subjects taught.
4. Adapting the program to needs of the students.
5. Suggested remedies for crowded programs.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Superintendent and teachers conduct meeting and give facts and experiences.
3. Round table discussion for practical solution if the program is crowded.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

If the school is not a consolidated school the program is a big problem and deserves sympathy of every parent. If the school is consolidated or graded then the proper selection of subjects offers consideration.

Study this problem from the standpoint of the child's best interest.

REFERENCES:

Bagley, W. C., Class Management, Macmillan Co., New York. 1914.
Sears, J. B., Classroom Organization and Control, Houghton Mifflin, Boston. 1918.

Subject 37. **How to Study.**

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. Teaching how to study.
2. The daily lessons—the teacher's part and the part of the child and parent.
3. Home work.
4. The time element in teaching and studying.
5. Full coöperation of parent and teacher for best interest of child.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Specialist or supervisor to lecture and give demonstrations on how to study.
3. Practice lessons by teacher and child before the meeting.
4. Round table discussion of experiences in the different homes of the community.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

Too much emphasis is placed on the recitation and not its preparation.

To know how to study is the great lesson in education.

Have a clear understanding with regard to home work.

Put in lessons of caring for books and school materials.

Stress neatness and promptness in preparation.

References:

Sandwich, R. L., How to Study, D. C. Heath, New York. 1915.
Earhart, L. B., Teaching Children to Study, Houghton Mifflin. 1909.

Subject 38. Discipline.

Topics for Discussion:

1. The general problem of child discipline.
2. Discipline in the home.
3. School discipline.
4. Individual and group discipline.
5. Lessons of discipline.

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Superintendent of school to lecture.
3. Experience meeting in discipline lessons.

General Suggestions:

While this is an individual problem, there are fundamental elements about the problem that are general in nature.

Have a thorough understanding with teachers about the question of corporal punishment.

Attempt a correlation of discipline in home and school.

Discuss the question of discipline from the school house gate to the home and home to school house gate. Have a clear understanding where authority lies.

References:

Same as No. 36.

Subject 39. Retardation and Backward Children.

Topics for Discussion:

1. Retardation as a school problem.
2. Retardation in the local school and community.
3. Reasons for retardation.
4. Solving the retardation problem.
5. A general study of retardation.

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Expert to lecture.
3. School superintendent to give the local problem and explain.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

This is more or less an individual problem and yet it directly affects the whole community.

Make a sane study of this problem for the sake of the child.

Try to find the reasons of retardation and see what can be done to eliminate them.

REFERENCES:

Ayres, L. P., Laggards in Our Schools, Charities Publications Committee, New York City. 1909.

Ayres, L. P., The Misfit Child (Bulletin), Russell Sage Foundation, New York City.

Subject 40. Music, Art and Expression in the School.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. Music and its part in the school curriculum.
2. Art and its part in the school curriculum.
3. Expression and its part in the school curriculum.
4. Correlating these subjects with general school subjects.
5. How to have the subjects properly placed in the school program.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Teachers of the subjects talk about the subjects and give benefits.
3. Program of the subjects given—selections by the school children.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

These subjects should be elective to every child.

They carry a great deal of the best that education offers.

Encourage children to take the extra work.

Show an appreciation for the subjects and use them.

REFERENCES:

MUSIC:

Weaver, Paul John. Music in the Public Schools, University of North Carolina Extension Division, Chapel Hill. 1921.

Fitting Music Study to the School Grades. N. de. Vore. Musician 24: 10 O. '19.

In What Direction is Public Music Education Tending. O. McConathy. Nat. Educ. Assn. 1918: 320-2.

New Music in the Schools. E. R. Worrell. Ladies Home Journal. 36:158 May '19.

ART:

Fourteen Points on the Value of Art Study. M. Miles. Ind. Art Mag. 8:321 Ag. '19.

Place of Art in Vocational Education. A. F. Payne. Ind. Arts Mag. 8: 181-2, My. '19.

Starting Children in the Right Direction. M. E. Price. Touchstone 5: 429-30, Ag. '19.

EXPRESSION:

Education Through Reading and Declamation. G. E. Johnson. Q. J. Speech Education. 6: 48-58, F. 1920.

Group V.—AGENCIES AIDING COMMUNITY AND SCHOOL

Subject 41. The County Superintendent of Public Welfare and the Health Officer.
Subject 42. The Home and Farm Demonstration Agents.
Subject 43. The School Library.
Subject 44. Helpful Aids from National Sources.
Subject 45. Helpful Aids from State Sources.
Subject 46. Community Clubs for Old and Young.
Subject 47. Boy Scouts, Camp Fire Girls and Related Clubs.
Subject 48. Good Roads.
Subject 49. The Newspaper.
Subject 50. The Red Cross.

Subject 41. The County Superintendent of Public Welfare and The Health Officer.

Topics for Discussion:

1. The welfare officer and the work.
2. Values of the welfare officer.
3. Welfare officer and the social agencies of the community.
4. The health officer and the work.
5. Values of the health officer.

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Have health officer and welfare officer to present talks on the work.
3. Round table discussion for the community.
4. Practical meeting in form of experience meeting by workers of this type.

General Suggestions:

It is good to know the work of these agencies.
It is good to have them working in harmony.
Encourage and support both agencies.
Know what they are doing and then aid them in the work.
Apply the work of both agencies to the school.

References:

State Reconstruction Studies, No. 41, University of North Carolina Extension Division, Chapel Hill. 1921.
Bulletin of North Carolina State Board of Charities and Public Welfare, July-Sept. 1921, Vol. 4, No. 3, Raleigh.

Subject 42. The Home and Farm Demonstration Agents.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. The home demonstration agent and her work.
2. Aiding the home demonstration agent.
3. The farm demonstration agent and his work.
4. Aiding the farm demonstration agent.
5. Benefits to the community from both sources.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Home demonstration and farm agents leading and presenting the work.
3. Practical meeting of exhibit of work.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

It is good to know these agencies.
Have the work closely correlated with school.
Use the agencies in the home and on the farm.
Link with the larger organization that the agents represent.
Know their work as best that is possible.

REFERENCES:

Publications of the Home and Farm Demonstration. Raleigh, N. C.
Social Laws and Agencies of North Carolina, American Red Cross, University of North Carolina, 1921.

Subject 43. The School Library.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. The school library and its work.
2. Methods of aiding and developing the school library.
3. The traveling library and its methods.
4. Aids from larger libraries in the state.
5. Values of library to children and community.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Some library official of the state to lecture.
3. School superintendent to present needs of school by a library discussion.
4. Book meeting—have each member bring a book or the price of a book or books.

General Suggestions:

This meeting may be used in connection with the story hour and summer reading subjects.

Encourage reading the best.

Give only the best to the library.

Remember that every development of the library makes for a wider and broader development in the community.

References:

Miller, Zana K., How to Organize a Library Bureau, New York City. 1921.

The School Library and How to Use It. Superintendent of Public Instruction, Raleigh, 1911.

Wilson, L. R. and Baker, C. M. Reference Books for High Schools. High School Journal, Jan. 1920. Chapel Hill, N. C.

N. C. Library Bulletin, N. C. Library Commission, Raleigh. March and June, 1914.

Webster, Carolina, Buying List of Books for Small Libraries, University of State of New York Bulletin, No. 695, October 1, 1919. Albany.

Subject 44. **Helpful Aids From National Sources.**

Topics for Discussion:

1. The national departments and bureaus aiding the community.
2. Other national organizations aiding the community.
3. How to obtain aid from these sources.
4. Values of this aid.
5. Linking community with national aids.

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Some national representative to lecture.
3. Letter-writing meeting—have members write to national sources for information.
4. Study-list meeting—have members study the aids and their locations and appoint sponsors for each organization.

General Suggestions:

There is an abundant amount of information obtained from these sources.

Whenever possible link with national aids.

Be sure to get on the mailing list of each.

In working up material or information use these sources.

References:

Franc, Alissa, Use Your Government, E. P. Dutton & Co., New York City.

Subject 45. Helpful Aids From State Sources.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. The state departments and bureaus.
2. Affiliating with state associations.
3. Specific aids that these sources are rendering the community.
4. How to obtain this aid.
5. Values of these sources.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

Same suggestions as to national sources.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

In general these agencies have field representatives who will come to the community.

Be sure to get the mailing list of all.

Where there is a higher organization of state affiliate with it.

Study these sources and use them.

REFERFNCES:

Publications of North Carolina State Departments.
Social Laws and Agencies of North Carolina, School of Public Welfare. University of North Carolina, 1921.

Subject 46. Community Clubs for Old and Young.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. Men's organizations aiding the community.
2. Women's organizations aiding the community.
3. Community clubs for both.
4. Clubs for the young people of the community.
5. The value of these organizations.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Representatives from the different organizations present the work of each.
3. Correlating meeting—showing what each is doing and where there is overlapping of effort, etc.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

In order for a club to live it must be worthwhile.

Study what each club is giving to the community.

Study the clubs of the young people.

Guide the young people in their efforts.

Where there is overlapping try to join efforts for the best interest of all.

References:

Social Laws and Agencies of North Carolina, School of Public Welfare, University of North Carolina. 1921.

Subject 47. Boy Scouts, Camp Fire Girls and Related Clubs.

Topics for Discussion:

1. General values of organizations of this type.
2. The Boy Scouts and their work.
3. The Camp Fire Girls and their work.
4. Other organizations for boys and girls.
5. The part of the parent-teacher association in these organizations.

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Outing with the Boy Scouts and Camp Fire Girls or similar clubs.
3. Members of the younger folks clubs to present their clubs to the association.
4. Some leader interested in this work to lecture.
5. Exhibition by the clubs for the Parent-Teacher Association.

General Suggestions:

The national organizations of this type are worthwhile.
Study local clubs of young people.
Encourage them in their efforts if directed along the right lines.
Study how other communities handle clubs for young people.

References:

The Book of the Camp Fire Girls, National Headquarters, New York City, 1921.
Campward Ho! A Manual for Girl Scout Camps. National Headquarters of Girl Scouts, New York City. 1920.
Barclay, Lorne W., Educational Work of the Boy Scouts. Bulletin, No. 24, 1919, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.
Social Laws and Agencies of North Carolina.

Subject 48. Good Roads.

Topics for Discussion:

1. Good roads and the community.
2. Good roads and the school.
3. The good road movement.
4. How to obtain good roads.
5. Financing the movement.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Some road official to lecture.
3. Some engineer and road constructor to lecture.
4. An inspection tour in the form of a picnic.
5. Visiting a neighboring association.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

Study the development of the road system.

Understand all the problems of road movements.

Study the values of good roads to the development of school and community.

Take an active interest in the construction of good roads in the community.

REFERENCES:

State Reconstruction Studies, No. 41, University of North Carolina Extension Division, Chapel Hill, 1921.
Secretary N. C. Good Roads Association. Chapel Hill, N. C.

Subject 49. **The Newspaper.**

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. The newspaper and the community.
2. The newspaper and the school.
3. Values of a good newspaper.
4. Advertising in the newspaper.
5. Supporting the local newspaper.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Some newspaper man to lecture.
3. A reading circle of current events through the newspaper.
4. Newspaper chats.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

The newspaper is one of the best sources of community development.

Support the local paper by furnishing local news and local subscribers.

Establish a school page or column.

REFERENCES:

Character in Newspapers. Bulletin No. 62 of University of Iowa State Extension Division, Iowa City. 1920.
Truth and the Newspapers. Review 1: 673-5, Dec. 20, '14.
What You See in the Papers. New Republic 21: 40-2, Dec. 10, '19.
Test of the News: Some Criticisms. New Republic 24: 31-3, S. 8, '20.
Press and Public Opinion. F. I. Cobb. New Rep. 21: 144-7, D. 31, '19.

Subject 50. The Red Cross in the Community.

Topics for Discussion:

1. The American Red Cross and its work.
2. The war work of the Red Cross.
3. The peace program of the Red Cross in communities.
4. The Red Cross nurse in the community.
5 The local chapter and its work

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Red Cross nurse to lecture.
3. Some Red Cross field agent to lecture.
4. A Red Cross chapter meeting with the Parent-Teacher Association.
5. Aiding the Red Cross roll call.

General Suggestions:

The war work of the Red Cross is worthy of study.
The peace program is splendid and demands support.
Study and encourage the work of the Red Cross nurse.
Link closely with the local Red Cross chapter.
Take an active part in the Red Cross roll call.

References:

The Work of the American Red Cross, American Red Cross, Washington, D. C. Latest publications.
Worrell, Ruth Mougey and Jordan, Helen Mougey, The Red Cross of Peace. A Pageant. American Red Cross, Washington, D. C.
Social Laws and Agencies of North Carolina.

Group VI.—MISCELLANEOUS SUBJECTS

Subject 51. Community Builders.
Subject 52. The Parent-Teacher Association.
Subject 53. Clean-Up Program for the Community.
Subject 54. Hot Lunches for School Children.
Subject 55. Parliamentary Law.
Subject 56. The Moving Picture Show.
Subject 57. Games for the School.
Subject 58. The Story Hour and Summer Reading.
Subject 59. Our Government.
Subject 60. Local Needs.

Subject 51. Community Builders.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. The home as a community builder.
2. The school as a community builder.
3. The church as a community builder.
4. Organizations as community builders.
5. Outside agencies aiding the community.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Leading representatives of various builders to give talks.
3. Open community meeting with an inspirational lecture on the subject.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

This is a broad subject but can be used forcefully as an inspirational meeting.

Stress the part each builder should contribute to the development of the whole.

REFERENCES:

Social Laws and Agencies of North Carolina.
Blackmar, F. W. and Gillin, J. L., Outlines of Sociology, Macmillan Co., New York. 1915.
Ross, E. A., Principles of Sociology, Century Co., New York. 1920.

Subject 52. The Parent-Teacher Association.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. The national organization.
2. The state association.
3. Relation of the local association to the state and national organizations.
4. What other associations are doing.
5. Real values of a parent-teacher association.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Have the meeting as a booster membership drive meeting.
3. Use as opening program after organization.
4. Have some official from national or state associations to lecture.

General Suggestions:

It is always good to know about the organization.
Be sure to affiliate with the larger units.
Be proud of membership in the organization and be a booster. Have an experience meeting—write letters to various neighboring associations and ask them to write what they have been doing.

References:

Publications of National Parent-Teacher Association, Washington, D. C.
Package Library of the University Extension Division, Chapel Hill.

Subject 53. Clean-Up Program for the Community.

Topics for Discussion:

1. What a clean community means to the inhabitants.
2. The harms of an unclean community.
3. The clean-up program and its workings.
4. A clean-up program for the whole year.
5. Community pride and the campaign.

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular club meeting with members leading.
2. Open community meeting with the health officer to lecture.
3. Illustrated lecture showing before and after clean-up campaigns.
4. Practical meeting with members leading in the work.

General Suggestions:

Have the children become interested in the campaign.
Have a club canvass of the community and let each member be responsible for a few houses.
Have the movement radiate into the neighboring sections.

References:

Package Library of the University Extension Division, Chapel Hill.

Subject 54. Hot Lunches for the School Children.

Topics for Discussion:

1. The school session, periods for recess, and the lunch hour.
2. The value of hot lunches.
3. How to have hot lunches in the school.
4. The penny lunch idea.
5. A practical hot lunch plan for the school.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Health nurse and teacher to give lectures.
3. Demonstration meeting with children.
4. Visiting the school at the hot lunch period.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

Study the problem of malnutrition.
Study the financial side of the hot lunch idea.
Where a workable plan is presented—try it out.
At the meeting have a round table discussion of the situation in the local school.

REFERENCES:

Fisher, Katherine A., The Lunch Hour at School, Health Education Bulletin No. 7, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C., 1920.
Daniels, Amy L., The School Lunch, University of Iowa Extension Division, Iowa City. 1921.
Knight, E. W., School Lunches, University of N. C. Extension Division, Chapel Hill. 1922.

Subject 55. Parliamentary Law.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. The value of parliamentary law in conducting the meeting.
2. Some fundamental rules of parliamentary law.
3. Organizing groups to study.
4. Aids in knowing parliamentary law.
5. Conducting the parent-teacher association meeting by parliamentary law practice.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Some authority to lecture on parliamentary law.
3. Practical meeting with parliamentary rules in force.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

Robert's rules of order is a good book to follow.
It will facilitate the meetings if some plan is followed.
Try to have as many as possible study the rules.
Apply them at all meetings, for by practice they are made easy to know.

REFERENCES:

Robert, Rules of Order, Scott, Foresman, Chicago, 1901.
Fox, E. A., Parliamentary Usage, Doubleday Page Co., New York. 1920.

Subject 56. The Moving Picture Show.

Topics for Discussion:

1. The real values of good pictures.
2. The moving picture in the school.
3. Kinds of pictures coming to the community.
4. Censoring the movies.
5. Regulating attendance on part of school children.

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Have moving pictures at a meeting.
3. Have local picture man lecture.
4. Visiting picture show for special program.

General Suggestions:

The movies can be of wonderful service to the school and the community.

They can be of inestimable harm.

Encourage patronage of the movies to good pictures only.

Coöperate with local movie man in getting people to attend when good pictures are shown.

References:

Eaton, W. P., At the New Theatre and Others, Small, Maynard, Boston. 1910.
Current Magazine and Newspaper Articles.

Subject 57. Games for the School.

Topics for Discussion:

1. The philosophy of play.
2. Values of organized play.
3. Games for indoors.
4. Games for outdoors.
5. Games for different ages, sexes and interests.

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Some play supervisor to lecture.
3. Demonstration meeting with games by school children.
4. Field day for the community.
5. Some supervisor to give demonstration.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

This can be made one of the best factors for development in the community.

Begin study groups for leadership in play.

Encourage proper types of games for the children.

Study the methods of recreating the community.

REFERENCES:

Pioneering For Play; Community Service, Inc., One Madison Avenue, New York City.

Schlafer, George E., Let the Children Play. University of Indiana Extension Division, Bloomington. 1920.

Meyer, Harold D., The Rural Playground, University of North Carolina Extension Division, Chapel Hill. 1921.

Subject 58. The Story Hour and Summer Reading.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION:

1. General values of the story and reading.
2. Types of book children of certain ages should read.
3. Guiding the reading of children.
4. The story hour and its real meaning.
5. What our children read during vacation.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. A professional story teller to lecture or to give a program.
3. A story hour led by local talent.
4. Telling stories for or by the children.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

Study the art of story telling and when possible practice.

Make a general survey of the literature that is being offered to children in the stores.

Make an investigation into the type of reading your child is doing.

Encourage the reading of the best at all times.

REFERENCES:

Bryant, Sara Cone, How to Tell Stories, Houghton Mifflin, Boston. 1905.

Cowles, Julia Darrow, The Art of Story Telling, A. C. McClurg, Chicago. 1916.

Patridge, Emelyn Newcomb, Story-Telling in School and Home, Sturgis and Walton, New York, 1914.

Subject 59. **Our Government.**

Topics for Discussion:

1. General types of governments found in the world.
2. General fundamental principles of our government.
3. Our national government.
4. Our state government.
5. Our responsibility in government.

Suggested Types of Meetings:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Some government official to lecture.
3. Reading of constitution and patriotic meeting.
4. Organizing groups for the study of civics.

General Suggestions:

While this is a broad subject treated broadly it may be made inspirational.

Form study groups for the study of civics.

Apply principles of government to home and community.

Be the chief upholder of law and order.

References:

Odum, H. W,. Constructive Ventures in Government, University of North Carolina Extension Division, Chapel Hill. 1920.

Carroll, D. D., Studies in Citizenship, University of N. C. Extension Division, Chapel Hill, 1919.

Subject 60. **Local Needs.**

Topics for Discussion:

1. Our community in general.
2. Suggested ways of general improvement.
3. Specific and practical ways of development.
4. The responsibility of the individual to the community and the community to the individual.
5. The future outlook of the community.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF MEETINGS:

1. Regular meeting with members leading.
2. Have some community organizer make a study of the community and report.
3. Have some expert to make a survey and report.
4. Open community with inspirational lecture.
5. Practical round table discussion of the community as a family group.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS:

To look at the community as a whole is a good study.

Sometimes an outside expert in studying the needs of communities may be helpful.

Where possible make the meetings and work full of good enthusiasm. Keep down any local antagonism that may develop.

Remember the community in the past and think of its future while working in the present.

REFERENCES:

State Reconstruction Studies, No. 41, University of North Carolina Extension Division, Chapel Hill. 1921.

PART III

SOME ADDED FEATURES OF INTEREST

SPECIAL FEATURES FOR PROGRAMS

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1. Variety of Program: It will be found a point of great interest to vary the programs of the meetings. Try to have every meeting different in some respects. When the members realize that the program committee is working up extra features and a variety of interest is presented they will take greater interest in attending and working.

2. Music: Everyone realizes the importance of music in any program. It is the flavoring to the whole and will serve as a means of interesting a large number of people talented in music and willing to aid in the programs. Always have some music on the program. Every community possesses music talent whether in piano, voice, musical instrument or the victrola. Develop and encourage community sings. A few songs for general singing will be a splendid way to open meetings. Develop the musical side of every program.

3. Refreshments: As a general rule it is not a good idea to serve refreshments at every meeting. If the meetings are held at the school house and there is no domestic science department it will be found a difficult problem. If there is such a department it will be all right, from time to time, to have the department serve the association with light refreshments at the expense of the association. If meetings are held at the homes of the members it will be an added expense to many homes and the spirit of rivalry may enter and prove embarrassing. Let it be understood at the outset that there will be no refreshments except when voted on by the club for some special occasions.

4. Community Meetings: From time to time have open community meetings. When the program is to be a feature pro-

gram it will add to the interest and work of the club to invite the entire community to participate. Especially, use the open meeting where it is to develop inspiration and action in community affairs where the aid of the entire community is needed. At these community meetings make it as hospitable as possible and have all to feel at home.

5. **Practical Meetings:** There is no better way of keeping and developing interest than by doing and actually seeing things accomplished. And it is always best to have as large a number at work as can be obtained. The more members doing things the more members interested. Scatter the activities of the club. When some practical program is given as developing school grounds, beautifying the community or the clean-up campaigns, have a meeting of the club actually working along the given subject. This will tend to destroy the inclination of making the meetings merely theoretical and club discussions without action.

6. **Informal Meetings:** As an innovation from the regular order of things have an informal meeting. Do away with the order of business and after having read the minutes join in a roundtable discussion and open forum of the subject. Let the meetings have more of the air of a friendly visit and a friendly gathering of neighbors. Have a community sing, tell experiences, have some games or tell some funny stories. This type of meeting is obliged to have its effect.

7. **Social Hours:** If there are certain members who have roomy homes in which to entertain a club meeting have them invite the club to meet with them from time to time. Once a year a formal reception or party will be all right. It will be a fine way to keep certain traits in the community that are needed and yet may be fast disappearing. It is not necessary to have expensive nor elaborate affairs but a dignified gathering of the community in a social way is worthwhile.

8. **Play Meetings:** Through community picnics, outings, school play festivals or games much interest will be manifested. Have the regular meeting at these times and give a real helping

hand in making them successful. Encourage community activities of this type and lead them in being affairs that aid in community development.

9. **Debates:** From time to time have subjects debated in regular debating style. This is always interesting. Have members to take sides on various subjects and discuss them in a debate. Have a community debate where non-members take part and the community is invited. If the school has a debating club or literary society have them to debate a subject that is up for discussion at the association.

10. **Illustrated Lectures and Moving Pictures:** The screen always calls for a big crowd and besides being a way to develop interest in the meetings it will be a good way of obtaining funds for the association. Have the local movie owners to set aside a special parent-teacher association program. Encourage attendance on this show and have him divide the proceeds with the association for its development. From time to time have illutrated lectures with colored lantern slides.

11. **Children's Meetings:** Let the children feel that they are the most important personages in the community. Have them on programs. Encourage them in this type of endeavor. When a program of this type is given put on a large number of children for where a family is represented on the program it can be counted on that some member of the family will be present.

12. **Original Meetings:** There are any number of other ways to vary the interest in the meeting. Use originality and develop interesting programs. The work of the program committee is very important and some of the club's best workers should be placed on it.

THE GRADE MOTHER SYSTEM

One of the best ways to increase interest and numbers in the local association is to establish the grade mother system. The Asheville Association has found this plan of great help. Their

plan is here given in full. It is adapted from the system used by the Horace Mann School with changes to meet the needs of the local association.

THE ASHEVILLE PLAN

The Grade Mother System was first put into practice in the schools of Asheville in the year 1919-1920. Its purpose is to increase the attendance of the parents at the monthly Parent-Teacher meetings and to establish a bureau of intelligence about the parents and homes of every child attending the City Schools.

From each grade two or more mothers are selected to visit or keep in touch with the other mothers of their grade. Before each monthly Parent-Teacher Association meeting each grade mother is expected to call up or visit the mothers on her list, or write them to attend. If the work is done thoroughly at the beginning of the year naturally it leaves less to be done for the rest of the time. A general, or central, Grade Mother is appointed in each of the Parent-Teacher Associations, whose duty it is to be responsible for all the grade mothers who in turn are each responsible for her list of parents in that particular grade, or part of a grade over which she is appointed.

For example—If a Council Meeting (meaning every member of every Parent-Teacher Association in the city) is called, the President of each association will call her Central Grade Mother; the Central Grade Mother will call her list of Grade Mothers, and they will call the mothers on their lists. By division of labor each home should be reached and the whole ground covered in a few hours. It can readily be seen that this system is valuable for an emergency as well as an efficient power in conducting regular business.

Suggestions to Grade Mothers

1. *Preliminaries:*

(a) Procure a list of the children of your grade, and the name, address and telephone numbers of their parents by copying from your teacher's list.

(b) Get in touch with your mothers as soon as possible and let them know by personal contact that you are interested in the school and their particular children. Establishing a friendly relationship will do much toward making your work easy and insuring the success of any plans which you may formulate for your group.

(c) Provide each mother with your name, address and telephone number so that she may be able to communicate with you on short notice. Assure her that you are ready and willing to discuss any questions concerning the school or her child, at a regular group meeting, or by special appointment.

(d) Meet your teacher by appointment and become acquainted with her. Visit her school room as often as possible and familiarize yourself with her aims and methods.

2. *Group Meetings*

(a) Notify your teacher of the group meetings so that she may attend, if possible, and by her presence add to the interest of the meetings.

(b) Make these meetings as interesting as possible. They may be social to a degree, but it is desirable that a definite program be planned with a leader-hostess, or some one appointed by her to guide the discussion.

3. *Plans and Methods for Group Meetings*

(a) Consult your teacher and the members of your group as to topics for discussion, and the time and place for meetings. The Grade Mother is urged to bring out ideas rather than to impose them. (For a first meeting place, the class room, with the teacher as hostess, is recommended.)

(b) Visit other groups than your own; also other schools and associations for the exchange of ideas and methods.

4. *Parents' Association*

(a) Inquire whether the parents in your group are members of the Parent-Teacher Association.

(b) Keep the parents in your group informed of all activities of the Association, particularly emphasizing the importance of attending its general meetings once a month,

5. *Information*

(a) The City Executive Council will be ready and willing to make suggestions as to topics for discussion at group meetings, or assist you in arranging a program.

(b) The President will also be glad to make suggestions that will be helpful to Grade Mothers.

(c) Feel absolutely free to call upon any of the above officials for any information you may desire.

(d) The weekly Parent-Teacher Association column in both papers may be used for the purpose of posting notices of meetings, list of books for reading, and other items of interest.

(e) Notices of desirable entertainments relating to education and child welfare will be published in both papers in the weekly Parent-Teacher Association Column.

THE COUNTY OR CITY COUNCIL OF ASSOCIATIONS

There are, perhaps, in the county or in the city several associations. Some of these may be doing active work; some may be associations only in name; others may be doubtful. And there may be some groups too small in number to function properly. Let us assume that some work of great importance to the educational development of the county or city comes forward. One local unit can accomplish so little in its effort to tackle a large problem and the impulse to increase the scope of activity is lost. Why not link all the associations of the county or city into a county or city council, forming an open forum where the many plans and programs for larger growth and activities may be discussed and mutual benefits derived.

In the rural districts of the State are many associations which need the added inspiration of numbers and ideas that will come from contact with the city units. They need the touch of the city associations and the city associations need the rural point of view. Invite the associations of the county that are affiliated with the State Association to form a county council. Let it be understood from the start that the formation is for mutual helpfulness and stimulation. If the city is large enough, and there are a number of associations in it, organize into a city council with the same standards of aims and ideals.

There are a number of splendid county and city councils in the State. Guilford county, under the leadership of Miss Betty Aiken Land, has an active county organization. Write to her at Greensboro for information. Asheville has a wide-awake city council. Write to Mrs. Curtis Bynum, Asheville, for information. Durham has a city council system doing splendid work. Call on them for assistance by writing to Mrs. Burke Hobgood, Durham. Mecklenburg has a well functioning county council. Write to Mrs. Joseph Garibaldi, Charlotte, for assistance. There are a number of others in the State but aid from these sources will enable any group to organize into a county

or city council. Have them send you full particulars in regard to organization, officers, rules and regulations, representation and meetings.

As soon as there are enough associations in the county or city to warrant a stronger union, begin to organize.

THE HIGH SCHOOL UNIT

High school associations have not received as much attention as have those of the graded school. This is due partly to the fact that many parents feel that the entrance of their children into high school marks the close of their association with the school, and partly to the fact that it is a natural trend in the development of the high school student to assume responsibility for his own conduct and to be independent of parental direction and contact in school affairs. Yet at no time in life is there a greater need for sympathetic, intelligent guidance on the part of parents.

Due to the peculiarities of what has been called "the unique age of life," it is not always easy for parents to maintain that intimate relationship which was enjoyed during the graded school age. The high school association should be the medium through which the parent is informed of the child's group life, of the opportunities offered for his development, of the new educational tendencies, of school life in general whereby the individual pupil may be enriched.

Two forms of high school associations are in use. One combines the activities of the parent-teacher association of the several grade schools with the high school. It is doubtful whether such an organization serves as effectively as would a separate and distinct high school association. The problems of the high school age are distinctly different from those of the grades and require different methods of treatment. It is suggested that the parents and teachers of high school students form a unit to study and enrich this field of child life.

In the numbers of the Child Welfare Magazine for October, 1922, Mrs. O. T. Bright, Chairman Parent-Teacher Associations,

6515 Harvard Ave., Chicago, suggests by-laws with a new plan for high school associations. This is followed by interesting articles in subsequent numbers dealing with the peculiar problems of the high school association.

ONE WAY TO MAKE FUNDS

An Illustration: The Penny Circus

A successful plan to secure funds is to have some form of program where the children take part and where the people receive entertainment for the money and time expended in attending.

A school circus, given by the older boys and girls, proved to be a very successful affair with the parent-teacher association of Chapel Hill. Details of this circus are given below.

A SCHOOL CIRCUS—THE PENNY CIRCUS

Organization: Have a general leader and one committee consisting of five people. One will have charge of the big show, one the side shows, another decorations, another finances, and one for refreshments.

Charges: Charge five pennies general admission. This will allow the person entrance into the school building and also includes the admission to the big show. Everything else is extra. Charge one penny for admission to each side show. Have two people at the main entrance to collect pennies. Have one person at each side show entrance. After the show closes have all the people collecting gather at one place and pool the money. Having no expenses, the amount collected will be surprising.

Decorations: Use any available material. Do not go to the expense of buying anything. Gather bunting, flags, colors, pennants, and other materials from the homes and stores of the community. It is best not to use any set form for decorating. Have a regular conglomeration of color and hanging. This will add to the circus idea.

Refreshments: Have some members of the parent-teacher association go to the different stores in the community and ask for contributions in the way of candy, cakes, chewing gum, crackers, peanuts,

pop-corn, lemons, sugar, paper cups, fruit, and anything else that may be sold in this way. Try not to buy anything. Ask some of the homes for cakes and candies. Sell everything cheap—candy at a penny a stick or piece, red lemonade two pennies a cup, cake (in small slices) two pennies a slice. It is suggested not to charge over two pennies for anything to eat.

Have some of the older girls dress as waiters and sell things. Find a place somewhere for a few tables to be put together for use as a serving counter.

Costumes: Do not allow the costumes to cost anything. Make up from things that one already possesses. It will be interesting to note all the dressing material that may be accumulated from the old trunks of the community.

Some General Hints: Begin on time. Do not let people in until the set time. Have the building well lighted. Use sheets for tents and coverings. Collect these from the homes of the children. Do not use pins in putting them together. Sew them. Close at the stated time. Do not run too long. Watch out for pushing.

THE CIRCUS PROPER

The circus proper is divided into two parts—the big show and the side shows.

When the set time for opening comes, have all the side shows going. It will be necessary to have "Callers" for these shows. Have some of the older boys dress as regular show men and stand in front of the different side shows to call the attention of the crowds to the show. Urge them to come in. Have them all calling at the same time. Make this as competitive as possible.

At a stated time, say fifteen minutes after opening, have the callers close the side shows and call attention to the big show. Hold the big show in the school auditorium. Have the side shows in the class rooms. After all the people are seated in the auditorium, let the big show begin with a regular circus parade through the halls and across the stage. Head the parade with a clown band.

Contents of the Big Show: The big show will consist, say, of ten acts about two minutes each of regular vaudeville style. The clown band may play a selection. This band consists of clowns with tin pans, sticks, hair-combs, etc., as musical instruments. Play a few rag time selections and have a fantastic leader. Have a group of the older girls sing a song in chorus style. One person can give a fancy dance. Have a few gymnastic stunts. Use the trained

elephants. Two boys fixed as an elephant and under direction of a leader do stunts. A good quartet will add to the interest. If possible, let one of the students or faculty members perform some tricks.

Some good practical jokes will produce a laugh. Make them fit local conditions and people. Allow only good jokes. Think of other ideas for the big show and use local talent that gives something interesting.

As soon as the big show is over let the side shows re-open. Have everything going in full swing. Let the clowns mingle with the people and play. Have refreshments for sale. Have the callers on the job at the side shows.

The Side Shows: This is the one feature that will add most for the success of the circus. A few illustrations are given. There were about fifteen side shows. Two or three may be put in one room and charges made according to the number in each room.

Illustrations: A Paradise on Earth. Make a large pair of dice out of cardboard and place on some dirt. Have sheets drawn across so that no one may see. When a crowd gathers, pull the curtain.

The Fat Woman: Have a student stuffed with pillows and the like. Make as large a person as is possible.

The Bridal Show: Have an old horse bridle hanging on the wall. At a stated time pull the curtain and have the people see the bridal show.

The Wax Doll: Have one of the prettiest students dress like a doll and stand in still position when the curtain is drawn.

The Hairy Man: Unravel a rope and put it on some boy. Get a long wig. Make him look as ferocious and wild as possible.

A Peep at The Stars: On the blackboard tack a number of pictures of movie stars. When the crowd gathers tell them about the real stars and what they are going to see, then draw the curtain and have them see the movie stars.

The Skeleton Man: Have the tallest boy to conduct this act. Dress in tight fitting black garment and in white draw the outline of a human body. This will take well.

A Scene in China: Have a china plate on a chair.

There are a number of these that one may think out. Try some new ones.

Extra Events: A Fish Pond. Hang some sheets across one corner of a room. Have some fishing poles. Charge a penny a fish. By

contributions purchase little things to put on the hook. From time to time put a gift that is worth while.

A Cake Raffle: Make a cake of cornbread and white icing. Sell chances. At stated time draw for the winner.

A Ring Board: Get a large board and stick nails in it having the points upward. Cut out of stiff cardboard some rings. Charge a penny a throw or six throws for five pennies. Have a prize of some kind on every nail.

Fortune Telling: Have some girls to be gypsy fortune tellers. Let them make tents of sheets and charge two pennies a fortune.

A Diamond Ring Raffle: Purchase a ten cent imitation diamond ring. Sell chances at a penny a chance. At stated time draw for the winner.

One may think of other things to do along this line.

Original ideas will add a great deal to the success of the circus.

PART IV

CONSTITUTIONS AND DIRECTORIES

CONSTITUTION AND BY-LAWS OF THE NATIONAL CONGRESS OF MOTHERS AND PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS

As Amended and adopted by Convention, May, 1922.

ARTICLE I

MEMBERSHIP

SECTION 1. The National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations shall consist of active, associate, sustaining and life members, and benefactors.

SEC. 2. The active members of the Congress and its conventions shall be members of local Mother's Circles or Parent-Teacher Associations or other Child-Welfare organizations whose dues are paid as hereinafter provided in these by-laws.

SEC. 3. Other organizations interested in Child-Welfare may affiliate with the Congress on a basis hereinafter provided.

ARTICLE II

OFFICERS

The officers of this organization shall be a president, seven or more vice-presidents, a recording secretary, a corresponding secretary, a treasurer and a historian.

ARTICLE III

ELECTION OF OFFICERS

SEC. 1. The officers of the Congress shall be elected by ballot at an annual convention, every third year, and shall hold office for three years, or until their successors are elected.

Sec. 2. No member shall be eligible to the same national office for more than two successive terms, and no member shall hold more than one national office at a time.

Sec. 3. In recognition of valuable services rendered to the organization, Honorary Officers may be elected upon the recommendation of the Board. The number of Honorary Vice-Presidents shall at no time exceed ten.

Sec. 4. Nominations to office shall be made to a nominating committee of five members, elected by the board of managers at the post-convention board meeting of the year preceding the election convention, and representing different sections of the United States. Candidates for office must be endorsed by their State organizations, or by five members of the national board of managers. Two months before the election convention, the nominations shall close, and the nominating committee shall prepare a ticket which shall be sent to all board members at least thirty days before the convention. Nominations may also be made from the floor, in which case the candidate must be endorsed by five accredited delegates from her State.

Sec. 5. The election shall take place on the second day of the convention. The term of office shall begin at the close of the election convention.

Sec. 6. Vacancies in office shall be filled by the board of managers.

ARTICLE IV

DUTIES OF OFFICERS

Sec. 1. The president shall preside at all conventions and at all meetings of the board of managers and of the executive committee. She shall perform all the duties usually pertaining to her office, and shall supervise plans for extending, unifying, and rendering efficient the work of the congress. She shall have power to appoint such special committees as may be found necessary, and she shall be a member, *ex officio*, of all committees, whether standing or special. She shall authorize all payments to be made by the treasurer.

Sec. 2. The vice-presidents in their order shall assume the duties of the president in her absence. Their other duties shall be as follows: The first and second vice-presidents shall act as aides to the president. The third vice-president shall be director of the department of organization and efficiency. The fourth vice-president shall be director of the department of public welfare. The fifth vice-president shall be director of the department of education.

The sixth vice-president shall be director of the department of home service. The seventh vice-president shall be director of the department of health.

SEC. 3. The recording secretary shall keep the minutes of all meetings of the convention and of the board of managers, and shall send copies of them promptly to the executive secretary. She shall have custody of all books and papers belonging to the organization, except those specifically assigned to others.

SEC. 4. The corresponding secretary shall conduct the correspondence of the convention, the board of managers, and the executive committee, and such other as may be delegated to her. She shall notify all committees of their appointment, and shall send to the executive secretary due notice of all conventions and meetings of the board of managers for which calls are to be issued. She shall be a member of the year book committee, but not its chairman.

SEC. 5. The treasurer shall have charge of all of the funds of the congress, with the exception of the endowment fund, and shall deposit them in a reliable bank or trust company. She shall collect quarterly all dues from State treasurers, and shall notify them in advance of the end of the fiscal year, which shall be April 14th. She shall present a statement of account at all meetings of the board and of the executive committee, and at other times when requested by the president, and shall make a full report to the annual convention.

Her accounts shall be audited annually by an expert accountant appointed by the board, and she shall give bond for the faithful performance of her duties.

SEC. 6. The historian shall collect, and preserve in the national office, documents relating to the history of the congress, and shall present a triennial report of its growth and progress.

SEC. 7. Each officer shall assume the duties of her office at the close of the convention at which she was elected, and shall, when her successor is elected, or in case of resignation, turn over all records, books, etc., within thirty days.

SEC. 8. The honorary offices shall carry with them no privileges except the right to attend conventions and board meetings, and to take part in discussion.

This section shall not be held to refer to honorary officers elected before 1921.

ARTICLE V

BOARD OF MANAGERS

Sec. 1. There shall be a board of managers composed of the officers, the honorary officers elected before 1921, the State presidents, or, in their absence, members accredited by their State boards, and the chairmen of national standing committees and committees-at-large.

The officers of the Congress shall be *ex officio* the officers of the board.

Sec. 2. There shall be a regular meeting of the board of managers immediately before and immediately after the annual convention, and in October of each year. Special meetings of the board may be called by the president, and shall be called upon request of any ten members thereon. Nine members, representing at least five states, shall constitute a quorum.

Sec. 3. The board of managers, at the post-convention board meeting, shall elect the chairman of standing committees, and may create, discontinue, or combine such committees. It shall transact all business of the congress arising between conventions, provided that no debt or liability except for ordinary current expenses shall be incurred and no project requiring the expenditure of large sums of money be entered into, except by an affirmative vote of at least fifteen members of the board.

Sec. 4. The board of managers shall have power to appoint such organizers or field workers as may be necessary to strengthen and extend the work of the organization. In organized states, such appointments shall be subject to the approval of the State Board. Such organizers or field workers may sit by courtesy with the board, but shall not vote, nor shall they count in making a quorum.

Sec. 5. The board of managers shall decide upon coöperation with other national organizations.

The name of the congress, or the name of any of its members in his or her official capacity, shall not be used in any connection with a commercial organization or its products, or for any other than the regular work of the congress.

Sec. 6. The board of managers shall elect annually, at the post-convention board meeting, a salaried executive secretary, who shall have charge of the national office, its equipment, papers, clerical force, and all of its activities in the execution of the plans of the congress under the president, the board of managers, and the executive committee.

She shall be *ex-officio* secretary of the executive committee.

ARTICLE VI

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

SEC. 1. The board of managers shall, at its first meeting following the election convention, elect three of its members, who with the national officers, shall constitute the executive committee. Five members shall constitute a quorum.

SEC. 2. The executive committee shall be empowered to transact, between board meetings, the routine business of the congress, and to act in emergencies which do not affect the general policies of the organization. This committee shall meet at the call of the president.

SEC. 3. The executive committee shall act as the program committee for the annual conventions, with power to add to its number in this capacity.

ARTICLE VII

DEPARTMENTS

SEC. 1. The board of managers shall create departments of organization and efficiency, public welfare, education, home service, health, and such others as may be found necessary. These departments shall include the standing committees assigned to them by the board, and shall work under the direction of vice-presidents, as elsewhere provided.

SEC. 2. The plan of work of departments and committees shall be submitted to the board for its approval, and no work shall be undertaken without such approval.

SEC. 3. The chairmen of standing committees shall be elected anually by the board of managers, and may serve for more than two terms, at the discretion of the board. They shall be members of the board.

ARTICLE VIII

REGIONS

SEC. 1. The board of managers shall group the United States into fourteen regions for closer coöperation and conference.

SEC. 2. These regions, as they organize, shall each, by means of a delegate body representing all the states in the region, elect annually a director, and other officers as may be needed. It shall be the duty of the board thus elected to conduct conferences, and otherwise to promote the interests and extension of the congress in its territory.

SEC. 3. Each region may adopt by-laws, provided that they do not conflict with those of the national congress, or of the state branches comprising that region.

Regions shall exercise no administrative authority, nor shall they take legislative action. The rights of the states and the powers of

the national administration shall not be subject to regional direction. Regions must finance their activities without recourse to the treasury of the national congress.

Sec. 4. The regional directors may sit by courtesy with the board of managers, and shall have the privileges of discussion of regional affairs, but shall not be entitled to vote.

ARTICLE IX

CHAIRMEN-AT-LARGE

Those branches of the work of the congress which do not function by means of State committees, shall be directed by chairmen-at-large, who, by virtue of their office, shall be members of the board of managers. These officials shall be: The chairman of South American Extension; the chairman of the endowment fund; the president of the Child-Welfare Company; and the chairman of the editorial board.

Other chairmen-at-large may hereafter be added to meet special requirements.

ARTICLE X

STATE BRANCHES

Sec. 1. When a state or territory of the United States has, in different localities, at least twenty congress circles or associations, with a membership aggregating at least 500, these may be organized by the congress into a state or territorial branch which shall receive a certificate of membership on payment of the dues hereinafter specified. A seal to be attached to this certificate, bearing the year, shall be issued annually at the post-convention board meeting, to each state in good standing at the end of the fiscal year.

All questions of state membership shall be decided by the board of managers with a two-thirds vote, not less than twenty members being present and voting.

Sec. 2. Each state or territory thus organized shall be known, in addition to its chosen name, as a branch of the national congress of mothers and parent-teacher associations, and shall work under by-laws in harmony with those of the congress.

Sec. 3. In organized states or territories local associations may join the congress only through the state branch.

In unorganized states or territories associations and circles may join the national congress directly, until such time as their state or territory is organized, when their membership will be automatically transferred to the state organizationn.

Sec. 4. Whenever the national congress shall adopt new by-laws or rulings which conflict with those of the states, state branches shall be promptly notified, and shall at the earliest possible opportunity, make such changes in their regulations as will conform them to the national decisions.

No certificate or seal shall be issued to the states until such changes shall have been made, due time having been allowed for action.

SEC. 5. State treasurers shall remit quarterly to the national treasurer all moneys due the national congress.

ARTICLE XI

DUES

SEC. 1. The treasurer of each state branch shall forward to the national treasurer five cents for each active member, fifty cents for each associate member, and $5.00 for each sustaining member of the N. C. M. and P. T. A. in her state, for annual dues, together with a list of associations and circles, and the number of members in each.

SEC. 2. The payment of $50.00 shall make the payer a life member, and the payment of $500.00 shall constitute the payer a benefactor. All moneys received from life members and benefactors shall go into the national treasury, less 10 per cent, which shall go to the state through which such memberships is secured.

SEC. 3. In unorganized states, the treasurer of each congress circle or association shall forward to the national treasurer ten cents for each active member of the organization for annual dues, together with a list of the officers, and their addresses, and the number of members, $1.00 for each associate member, and $10.00 for each sustaining member.

SEC. 4. Other organizations interested in the work of the congress may affiliate with it upon payment of annual dues as follows: For organizations of 100 members or less, $3.00; for organizations numbering from 100 to 500, $5.00; for organizations of from 500 to 1,000 members, $10.00.

One-half of these dues shall be retained by the treasurer of the state, and one-half shall be forwarded to the national treasurer, together with a list of the organizations and their membership, and the addresses of the president and secretary of each.

ARTICLE XII

ENDOWMENT FUND

The board of managers may delegate to an endowment committee composed of the president, a treasurer, and three other members to be elected triennially by the board, all of its powers in regard to the endowment fund, when said board is not in session.

This committee shall keep a record of its actions and report the same at each meeting of the board.

ARTICLE XIII

REPRESENTATION

Sec. 1. Each state or territorial branch in good standing shall be entitled to send to the annual convention, its president, recording secretary, corresponding secretary and treasurer, or their accredited representatives and one voting delegate for every 1,000 members in good standing as shown on the books of the national treasurer.

Sec. 2. Each congress circle or association in unorganized states or territories may send to the annual convention, its president and secretary, or their accredited representatives, who shall be entitled to all the privileges of delegates except the right to vote.

Sec. 3. All members of the national board not otherwise provided for in these by-laws, shall be members of the conventions, with all the powers of delegates thereto.

ARTICLE XIV

CONVENTIONS

There shall be an annual convention, the time and place thereof to be decided by the board of managers.

The quorum of the convention shall be sixty voting delegates.

ARTICLE XV

PARLIAMENTARY PROCEDURE

Sec. 1. This organization shall be governed by Robert's Rules of Order, Revised, in all cases where they are not in conflict with these by-laws.

Sec. 2. A parliamentarian may be appointed by the executive committee to attend conventions and board meetings, when it is deemed advisable.

ARTICLE XVI

AMENDMENTS

Sec. 1 These by-laws may be amended at any annual convention by a two-thirds vote. A copy of the proposed amendment, endorsed by a state board, or by five members of the national board of managers, shall be sent to the national corresponding secretary at least sixty days before the convention, and shall be appended to the call of the convention.

Sec. 2. These by-laws may be amended at any annual convention by unanimous vote, without previous notice, provided that the proposed amendment is endorsed by ten delegates, representing at least five states, and is read at each of two sessions before being voted upon.

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE STATE ASSOCIATION

THE NORTH CAROLINA BRANCH OF THE NATIONAL CONGRESS OF MOTHERS AND PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS

Organized November 5, 1919, at Charlotte, N. C.

CONSTITUTION

ARTICLE I

NAME

The name of this organization shall be the North Carolina Branch of The National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations.

ARTICLE II

OBJECTS

The objects shall be to raise the standards of home life; to give young people opportunities to learn how to care for children, so that when they assume the duties of parenthood, they may have some conception of the methods which will best develop the physical, intellectual and spiritual nature of the child; to bring into closer relations the home and the school, that parents and teachers may coöperate intelligently in the education of the child; to surround the childhood of the whole world with that wise, loving care in the impressionable years of life that will develop good citizens; to use systematic and earnest effort to this end through the formation of parent-teacher associations in every public school and elsewhere, through the establishment of kindergartens, and through distribution of literature which will be of practical use to parents in the problems of the home life; to secure more adequate laws for the care of dependent children, and to carry the mother-love and mother-thought into all that concerns childhood. The congress believes that, with the aid of Divine Power, these objects will be accomplishhed.

ARTICLE III

MEMBERSHIP

Section 1. The membership of this organization shall consist of active, associate and life members.

Sec. 2. Organizations approved by the executive committee may affiliate with the congress.

Sec. 3. Active members of the convention shall be delegates from the local and affiliated organizations, and life members.

Sec. 4. Persons may become associate members, and life members by the payment of sums hereinafter provided.

ARTICLE IV

OFFICERS

The officers of this congress shall be a president, ten vice-presidents, a recording secretary, a corresponding secretary, a treasurer, an auditor, and an historian, who shall be elected annully.

ARTICLE V

BOARD OF MANAGERS

Section 1. There shall be a board of managers which shall consist of the officers above provided for and ten others chosen from different sections of the state. This board shall meet once before and once after each annual convention and at such times as the exigencies of the congress may demand. Seven members shall constitute a quorum.

Sec. 2. There shall be an executive committee consisting of the officers of the congress. In the interim between the meetings of the board of managers this committee shall approve applications for membership, shall fill vacancies in offices until the next annual convention, and shall attend to such other business as may be delegated to it by the board of managers. Three members shall constitute a quorum.

Sec. 3. The president of the state branch may call meetings of the board of managers and of the executive board at any time she may deem necessary, and shall call such meetings of the board of managers upon the written request of any five members thereof, provided that not less than ten days' notice of the time and place of such meetings be given.

ARTICLE VI

ANNUAL CONVENTIONS

There shall be an annual convention of the North Carolina branch of national congress of mothers and parent-teacher associations, the

place and date of such convention to be decided by the executive committee.

ARTICLE VII

AMENDMENTS

This constitution may be amended at any annual convention by a two-thirds vote of those present at the business meetings at which it was presented, due notice having been given of such proposed amendments at the preceding annual convention, said amendment having been proposed by five delegates, with endorsement of the association they represent.

BY-LAWS

DEPARTMENTS AND COMMITTEES

SECTION 1. The board of managers shall create departments corresponding with those of the national organizations.

The chairman of each state department becomes a member of the corresponding national department.

The board of managers shall appoint for each department a chairman, who shall be elected annually.

SEC. 2. The executive committee shall constitute the program committee, with power to add to its members.

SEC. 3. The president of this congress shall have power to appoint such special committees as shall be necessary to the execution of the work of the congress and the proper conduct of the annual convention of the North Carolina branch of national congress of mothers and parent-teacher associations.

BY-LAWS II

POWERS OF BOARD OF MANAGERS

SECTION 1. The board of managers shall have power to make rules for the transaction of the business of the board, and to amend the same from time to time as may prove necessary.

BY-LAW III

DUES

SECTION 1. The treasurer of each mothers' circle or parent-teacher association in membership shall forward to the treasurer of the state branch national congress of mothers and parent-teacher associations, ten cents annually for each member of her organization. The state treasurer shall send five cents of this ten cents to the treasurer of the national congress of mothers and parent-teacher associations. Organizations shall pay dues quarterly and pay to date from the month when they became members. The state treasurer shall remit quarterly to the national treasurer the dues received for the quarter

with the list of associations, officers and addresses of same, and number of members. On receipt of this, the national treasurer will send membership cards to each president for each member of the association; the president and treasurer will receive national yearbook and other national literature.

Sec. 2. The payment of one dollar annually to the treasurer shall constitute the payer an associate member of the national congress of mothers and parent-teacher associations, and the state branch.

Sec. 3. The payment of $25.00 shall constitute the payer a life member of national congress of mothers and North Carolina branch national congress of mothers and parent-teacher associations.

Sec. 4. Mothers' circles and parent-teacher associations must join the congress as individual organizations, not through leagues, federations or union. Dues must be paid to the state treasurer.

Sec. 5. The annual dues of affiliated or coöperative organizations other than *Mothers' Circles, Child Welfare Circles or Parent-Teacher Associations* shall be as follows:

The affiliation dues for circles of 100 or less in membership shall be three dollars annually; for circles of over 100, the annual dues shall be five dollars. Affiliated bodies shall pay the dues to the state treasurer, who shall forward half to the national treasurer.

BY-LAWS IV

STATE AND LOCAL REPRESENTATION IN NATIONAL CONVENTIONS

Section 1. The state president is ex-officio a member of the national board of managers.

Each state branch of the national congress of mothers and parent-teacher associations shall be entitled to send to the conventions of the national congress of mothers its president or her representative, recording, corresponding secretaries and treasurer and one delegate for every 500 members.

LOCAL REPRESENTATION IN STATE CONVENTIONS

Section 1. Each mothers' circle, child welfare circle, or parent-teacher association in membership in the North Carolina branch national congress of mothers and parent-teacher associations, shall be entitled to send to the annual state convention, the president and one delegate for every 25 members. For affiliated and coöperative organizations representation given is by the president and one delegate. Local circles can only join the national congress of mothers and parent-teacher associations through payment of dues to the state treasurer.

Sec. 2. Affiliated organizations shall be entitled to send one delegate to the annual conventions of the national congress of mothers and parent-teacher associations, and the annual convention of state branches, upon the payment of the annual dues as given in By-law III, Section 5.

BY-LAW V

PRIVILEGES

SECTION 1. Each delegate shall be entitled to a reserved seat and to one vote on all questions.

SEC. 2. Associate members shall be entitled to reserved seats at the conventions, to the privileges of the floor and to vote upon all subjects, excepting those pertaining to the administration of the congress.

SEC. 3. Life members shall be entitled to a vote on all questions and to reserved seats at all conventions.

BY-LAW VI

NOMINATIONS AND ELECTIONS

SECTION 1. Nominations shall be made by a nominating committee of five members elected by the board of managers at the spring board meeting just preceding the election convention and representing as far as possible different sections of the State.

SEC. 2. The chairman of the nominating committee shall confer with the local presidents and ask them to send in nominations for the different offices. Each state board member shall be entitled to send in one nomination for each office.

SEC. 3. Additional nominations may be made from the floor.

SEC. 4. The report of the nominating committee shall be sent to all local presidents and members of the board of managers thirty days prior to the election convention.

BY-LAW VII

POLICIES

SECTION 1. It shall be the policy of the North Carolina Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations to withhold its mailing list except in such instances as the board of managers deems wise for the advancement of the cause of the child welfare in the State and nation.

SEC. 2. It shall be against the policy of the organization to permit the use of its name or that of any local association in connection with any industrial or commercial concern.

SEC. 3. The interference on the part of local associations in matters of school administration or academic policy shall be discouraged by the State Association. The attitude toward the school system of North Carolina shall be sympathetic, harmonious co-operation.

BY-LAW VIII

AMENDMENTS

The by-laws may be amended at any annual convention on two days' notice of the proposed amendment, such amendment having first been submitted to the board of managers.

(This Space Reserved for Changes Made in State Constitution)

A SUGGESTED CONSTITUTION FOR LOCAL ORGANIZATIONS

It is not necessary but it is suggested that the local association organize along the general lines of the national and state associations; however, use local color and where local conditions necessitate changes do not hesitate to make them. After a careful study of a number of local constitutions the one printed seems to be a serviceable and workable one for most any association. It is the present constitution of the Lexington, North Carolina, parent-teacher association. It is suggested that the number of and election of officers be adapted to local conditions. The time of meeting is a local matter of consideration; however, it is best to have some definite time for the meetings. In determining the number for a quorum, base the number on a percentage of total membership.

In having committees use local color and have as many as the definite work of the association will command. A committee is generally composed of the chairman and three other members.

Two blank pages are left to give members space to copy the local constitution after its adoption. Also space is given to write amendments and by-laws as they are added. The shorter and more concise the constitution the better will be its use.

CONSTITUTION OF LEXINGTON PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION

ARTICLE I

This organization shall be called the Lexington Parent-Teacher Association.

ARTICLE II

PURPOSE

Its purpose is to study and improve conditions affecting child life, to create a better understanding between parents and teachers, and to promote in general the interest of education.

ARTICLE III

MEMBERSHIP

Any one interested in the purpose of this organization is qualified for membership.

ARTICLE IV

OFFICERS

Section 1. The officers shall consist of a president, a vice-president, a secretary, a treasurer, elected annually in March for the ensuing school year. They perform the duties that usually devolve upon such officers.

Section 2. Twenty-five members shall constitute a quorum.

ARTICLE V

BOARD

Section 1. The officers and chairman of standing committees, together with the school superintendent, shall constitute the executive board.

ARTICLE VI

MEETINGS

Section 1. Regular meetings shall be held on third Wednesday of each month from September to May, inclusive.

Section 2. Special meetings may be called by the president when necessary.

Section 3. Public notice of all meetings shall be given to members.

Section 4. No regular meeting shall exceed one hour.

ARTICLE VII

COMMITTEES

The chairman of standing committees shall be named by the president.

The following committees shall be standing committees:

1. Program
2. Publicity
3. Membership
4. Social
5. Ways and means.

ARTICLE VIII

AMENDMENTS

Amendments to this constitution may be adopted by a majority vote after they have been proposed at a previous meeting.

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE.....
PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION

(This Space Reserved for Amendments and By-Laws Added from Time to Time)

DIRECTORY

THE NATIONAL CONGRESS OF MOTHERS AND PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS

FOUNDERS OF THE NATIONAL CONGRESS OF MOTHERS

Mrs. Theodore W. Birney
Mrs. Phoebe A. Hearst

NATIONAL OFFICE

1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W.,
Washington, D. C.

NATIONAL OFFICERS

President, Mrs. Milton P. Higgins, 228 West Street, Worcester, Mass.
Recording Secretary, Mrs. Joseph Garibaldi, 214 Park Avenue, Charlotte, N. C.
Corresponding Secretary, Mrs. George B. Chandler, Rocky Hill, Conn.
Treasurer, Mrs. Hubert N. Rowell, 3158 College Avenue, Berkeley, Calif.
Auditor, Mrs. C. H. Remington, 214 Waterman Avenue, E. Providence, R. I.
Historian, Mrs. Giles Scott Rafter, 1724 Kilbourne Street, Washington, D. C.

EXECUTIVE SECRETARY

Mrs. Arthur C. Watkins, 1201 Sixteenth Street N. W., Washington, D. C.

NATIONAL ORGANIZER

*Miss Lida E. Gardner, State Department of Education, Frankfort, Ky.

VICE-PRESIDENTS

Mrs. David O. Mears.....9 Concord Ave., Cambridge, Mass.
Mrs. Isaac L. Hillis.....1625 6th Ave., Des Moines, Iowa
Mrs. Fred Dick.....2755 West 32nd Ave., Denver, Colo.
Mrs. Henry O. Holland.....108 Highland Ave., Buffalo, N. Y.
Mrs. H. B. Farnsworth.....Missoula, Mont.
Mrs. Eugene Crutcher.....817 Lischey Ave., Nashville, Tenn.
Mrs. J. C. Todd.....502 Sheridan Ave., Tacoma, Wash.
Mrs. A. L. Hamilton.....836 N. Raymond Ave., Pasadena, Calif.
Mrs. A. P. Phelps.....2233 W. Monroe Street, Phoenix, Ariz.
Mrs. H. S. Doster.....Prattville, Ala.

*Deceased.

THE STATE OFFICERS

Every officer of an association should know the officers of the State association and chairman of the standing committees. This page is designed to help officers of the State and local associations to remember these. If there are other officers than the ones named, fill them in at the bottom of the page. If there are more committees do likewise.

1922-23

Title	Name	Location
President	Mrs. J. Frank Spruill	Lexington
Recording Secretary	Mrs. H. E. Moffit	Winston-Salem
Corresponding Secretary	Miss C. Albertson	China Grove
Treasurer	Mrs. A. A. Knee	Charlotte
Auditor	Mrs. Burke Hobgood	Durham
Historian	Mrs. B. F. Kemp	Reidsville
Vice-Presidents		
First	Mr. A. W. Honeycutt	Hendersonville
Second	Mrs. Rhotin Hines	Mt. Airy
Third	Mrs. C. D. Burton	Greensboro
Fourth	Mrs. Highsmith	Gastonia
Fifth	Mrs. Wesley Bruner	Raleigh
Sixth	Mr. E. C. Coltrane	Roanoke Rapids
Seventh	Mrs. C. L. Coon	Wilson
Eighth	Mrs. C. W. Melick	Elizabeth City
Ninth	Mrs. Frank Hudson	Salisbury

DEPARTMENT CHAIRMEN

Extension and Membership.....Mrs. Curtis Bynum, Asheville
Child Welfare .....Mrs. H. F. Latimer, Winston-Salem
Parent-Teacher Bulletin.....Mrs. Joseph Garibaldi, Charlotte
Ways and Means.....Mrs. Arthur Watts, Greensboro
Publicity .....Mrs. R. B. Whitley, Wendell

BOARD OF MANAGERS

The board of managers is made up of the officers named above and Mr. Harold D. Meyer, representing the University, and Mr. C. B. Shaw representing N. C. C. W.

Note—This list was sent in by the corresponding secretary.

THE LOCAL OFFICERS

As is true of the local officers so it is true of the local members. Every local member should know the local officers and committeemen. The same general plan is followed in arrangement and information regarding the local association as was used in the State Association.

Title	1921-22 NAME	1922-23 NAME	1923-24 NAME
OFFICERS			
President			
Vice-President			
Secretary			
Treasurer			
COMMITTEES			
Program			
Chairman			
Members			
Membership			
Chairman			
Members			
Social			
Chairman			
Members			
Publicity			
Chairman			
Members			
Ways and Means			
Chairman			
Members			
Other Com'ts			

A PARTIAL LIST OF PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS IN THE STATE

The list includes only those associations affiliated with the State Association as given in a list sent out by the Secretary. As others affiliate with the State Association they may be added to this list.

Aberdeen
Ansonville
Asheville:
- Montford Ave. School
- Murray School
- Asheland School
- Orange School
- West Asheville School
- High School
- Emma High

Biltmore
Belmont
Bladenboro
Broadway
Bostic
Burlington
Caroleen
Carthage
Chapel Hill
Cliffside
China Grove
Colerain
Concord
Charlotte
- Dilworth School
- First Ward School
- Elizabeth School
- Third Ward School
- Fourth Ward School
- South Graded School
- Wesley Heights School
- High School
- Junior High Schoool

Derita
Dover
Durham
- East Durham
- West Durham
- Morehead School
- Fuller School
- Watts Graded School
- North Durham

Elizabeth City
Farmville
Forest City
Franklin
Gastonia
Green Hill
Greensboro
- High School
- Ashboro-Pearson School
- Cypress Street School
- Lindsay Street School
- N. C. C. W. Training School
- Simpson Street School
- Lee Street School
- Spring Street School

Guilford College
Hamlet
Hendersonville
Henrietta
High Point
- Elm Street School
- High School

Jamestown
Kinston

Lillington
Lexington
Maxton
Middlesex
Monroe
Mooresville
Morehead City
Mount Airy
North Wilkesboro
Polkton
Pomona
Raleigh
  Wiley School
  Murphey School
  Franklin School
Ramseur
Reidsville
Red Springs
Rockingham
Roxboro
Rutherfordton
Salisbury
  West Ward School
  Ennes Street School
  North Main Street School
  Ellis Street School
Tryon
Troy
Wendell
Wilmington
Winson-Salem
  West End School
  South Side School

YEARLY PROGRAM FOR THE.....
PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION

Date	Subject	Leaders	Time	Remarks

Aids that the University Offers the Parent-Teacher Association

BUREAUS AND SERVICE

of the UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION

CHAPEL HILL, N. C.

The University of North Carolina through its University Extension Division offers to the people of the state:

I. CORRESPONDENCE AND CLASS INSTRUCTION: Standard University courses by mail, either for credit or non-credit. All courses are credited toward university degrees and state teachers' certificates. Evening extension classes in several cities. Write for correspondence bulletin. Summer post-graduate medical courses.

II. LECTURES: Popular or technical lectures, individual or in series, for clubs and community organizations. Addresses for commencement or other special occasions. Write for lecture bulletin.

III. SHORT COURSES AND INSTITUTES: Upon request short courses at the University for educational groups. Institutes on road engineering, country life, community drama.

IV. PUBLIC DISCUSSION: Programs for women's clubs and other groups. Package library loans. Home reading courses. Programs and guidance for debating clubs, parent-teacher associations, etc. General information. Write for bulletins.

V. COMMUNITY DRAMA: Guidance and field direction in the writing and production of community plays, pageants, and festivals. Write for bulletins. Service of a field agent available.

VI. COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS: Coöperates with business and manufacturing organizations of the state. Special studies and research on economic problems.

VII. COMMUNITY MUSIC: Leadership for community sings. Formation of community choruses. Lectures on public school and community music. Piano and organ recitals. Write for bulletins.

VIII. MUNICIPAL INFORMATION AND RESEARCH: For use in studying and drafting city, town, village, and country legislation.

IX. ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL SURVEYS: Of counties and communities for use by them in efforts to improve their economic and social conditions.

X. COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT: Promotes community organization, recreation, student service, and child welfare. Services of a field agent available.

XI. HIGH SCHOOL DEBATING AND ATHLETICS: Annual state-wide contest in high school debating and all branches of athletics.

XII. DESIGN AND IMPROVEMENT OF SCHOOL GROUNDS: Designs and planting plans for grounds of schools, churches and charitable institutions. Services of a field agent available.

XIII. EDUCATIONAL INFORMATION AND ASSISTANCE (in coöperation with the School of Education): Educational tests and measurements. School surveys. Advice and counsel with reference to school buildings, equipment, and general administrative problems. For educatonal advice and assistance write directly to the School of Education, or to the Extension Division.

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA RECORD
EXTENSION SERIES

8. Coöperative Institutions Among the Farmers of Catawba County. Price 25c.

Upon application the following numbers will be sent you for the price listed:

9. Syllabus of Home-County Club Studies. Price 25c.
12. The Teaching of County Geography. Price 25c.
21. Measurement of Achievement in the Fundamental Elementary School Subjects. Price 25c.
22. Public Discussion and Debate. (Revised.) Price 25c.
25. Local Study Clubs. Price 25c.
27. Standard Educational Tests and Measurements as a Basis for a Co-operative Plan. Price 25c.
29. Comparative Results of a State-wide Use of Standard Tests and Measurements. Price 25c.
30. The North Carolina Club Year-Book—County Government and County Affairs in North Carolina. Cloth. Price $1.25.
31. Compulsory Military Training. Price 25c.
32. A Study of the Public School in Orange County, North Carolina. Price 25c.
33. The State and County Council. Price 25c.
36. Plays for Amateurs. Price 50c.
37. Further Use of Standard Tests and Scales as a Basis for Co-operative Research Plan. Price 25c.
38. The Construction of Schoolhouses. Price 50c.
39. The Teaching of Geometry. Price 50c.
41. N. C. Club Year Book—State Reconstruction Studies. Price 75c.

1. (Special Series.) Design and Improvement of School Grounds. Price 75c.

STAMPS, CHECK OR MONEY ORDER ACCEPTED

ADDRESS: UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION,
CHAPEL HILL, N. C.

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA EXTENSION BULLETIN
Published twice a month, September, October, November, December, and once a month, January, February, March, April, May, June.
Succeeding and combining UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA EXTENSION LEAFLETS, Volumes I-IV, and THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA RECORD, EXTENSION SERIES 1-41.

Vol. II, No. 8 December 16, 1922

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION

University of North Carolina Extension Bulletin

SERVICE TO THE STATE

BY THE

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA EXTENSION DIVISION

DURING

The Biennium November 1, 1920 to October 31, 1922

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA PRESS
Chapel Hill, N. C.
Entered as Second-Class Matter

A DECADE OF EXTENSION SERVICE.

HARRY WOODBURN CHASE
President of the University.

A modern State University has clearly three tasks to perform. It must instruct students who come to it. This was the first, and is always the prime function of a university, organized as it is as a company of teachers and learners. Second, it must do its part in the discovery of new truth for the advancement of knowledge and civilization. And; finally, it must mobilize its resources for the direct and immediate service of the State whose creation it is. In its teaching and its research it is looking to the future; aiming at results which become fully evident only when the younger generation has become mature and has achieved responsibility and leadership. In its direct service to the State it seeks to put the knowledge which is at the command of its staff of specialists immediately at the service of the generation which is already doing the work of the world, too busy to seek out university classrooms and laboratories for long periods of residence instruction, but eager to keep in touch with the best of the knowledge that a growing institution has to offer.

This direct and immediate service to the citizenship of its State has come to be known as "University Extension." It seeks, in its widest sense, to put the resources of the State's greatest educational plant in an organized way at the disposal of the State, here and now.

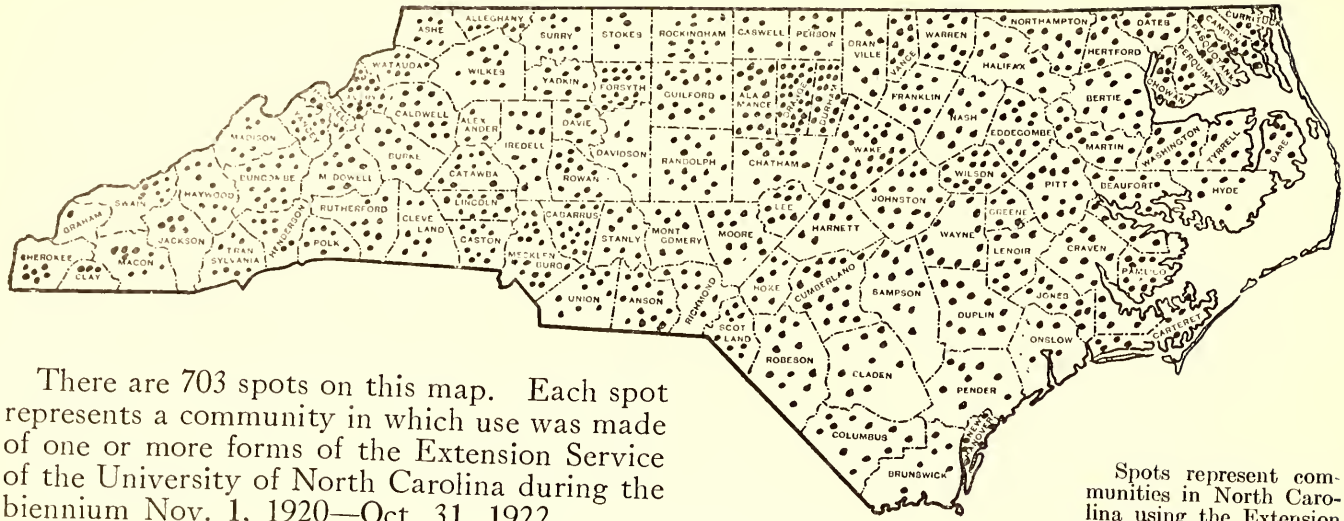
Ten years ago the University of North Carolina began this work in a small way. Under the sympathetic leadership of Edward Kidder Graham, with the wise guidance of Louis R. Wilson (for nine years director of the University Extension Division), and through the hearty co-operation of the faculty, the extent and value of its services have steadily increased, until last year there was literally no county in the State which was not touched, or in which some citizen was not touched, by one of the thirteen bureaus of the present Extension Division.

Extension at the University of North Carolina is thus a natural and inevitable expression of the philosophy which underlies the modern democratic state university. It simply puts into circulation in the State at large what is already in circulation at the University. It is animated by the same ideals, a resultant of the same vitality, an embodiment of the same spirit. It is not something added to, but an integral part of, a live and growing organism.

May its next decade be even more productive of good to the State than that which is now closing!

"SERVICE TO THE STATE"

The University of North Carolina: University Extension Division



Spots represent communities in North Carolina using the Extension Service of the University of North Carolina.

There are 703 spots on this map. Each spot represents a community in which use was made of one or more forms of the Extension Service of the University of North Carolina during the biennium Nov. 1, 1920—Oct. 31, 1922.

There are 1,622 post offices in North Carolina. During the biennium covered by this report the Extension Division rendered service to nearly one-half of these places. Some service was rendered to every one of the 100 counties of the State.

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION SERVES LARGE NUMBERS

Nov. 1, 1920—Oct. 31, 1922

356 enrollments were received for correspondence-study courses from 262 students in 79 counties.

200 physicians took the 1922 summer post-graduate medical course in 12 centers of the State.

165 students were enrolled in extension classes in 6 cities.

188 lectures given by University speakers scheduled through the Extension Division.

58,050 people heard at least one University lecture.

16,000 homes received the "University News Letter" every week during the two-year period.

101,850 educational bulletins were printed and sent out.

6,500 high school students took part in the State championship debating and athletic contest organized by the Extension Division.

780 people were reached by the Bureau of Design and Improvement of School Grounds.

2,500 requests for educational information were taken care of by the School of Education.

5,285 members of women's clubs studied programs prepared by the Extension Division.

3,264 package libraries were sent upon request.

850 people were reached by the field work of the School of Commerce.

4,263 letters were written in answer to requests for general information.

1,740 people were reached by the extension services of the School of Welfare.

650 play-books and pageants were sent out upon request by the Bureau of Community Drama.

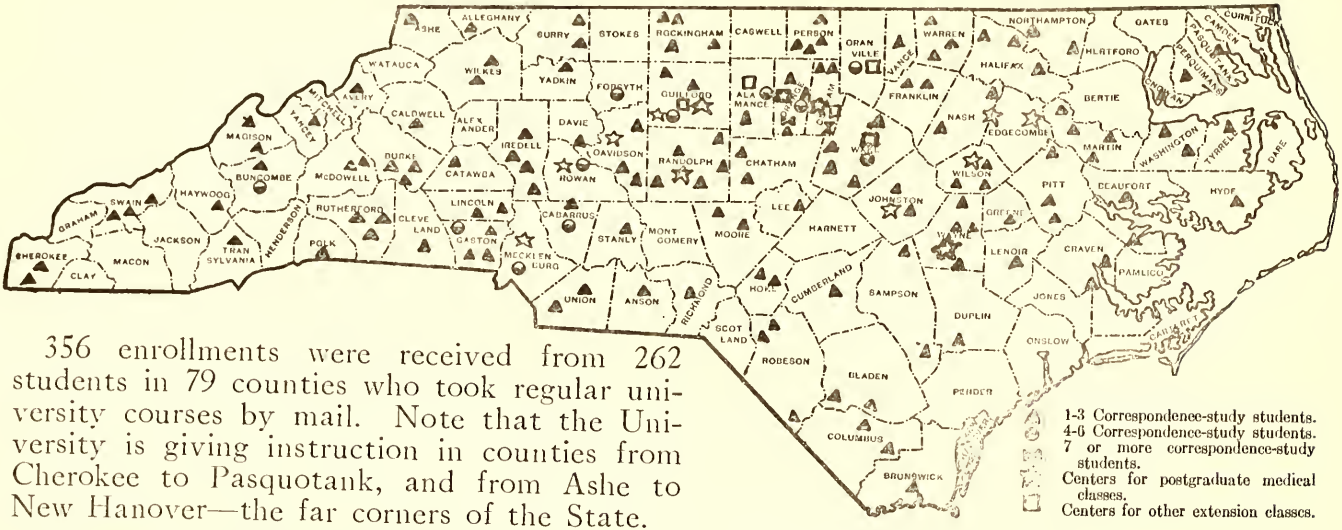
7,600 people were served by the work of the Bureau of Community Music.

7,800 letters were received by the Department of Rural Social-Economics requesting information about North Carolina.

703 communities were reached by one or more forms of University Extension service.

Thousands of people attended the performances throughout the State of the Carolina Playmakers and the University Glee Clubs.

BUREAU OF CORRESPONDENCE AND CLASS INSTRUCTION

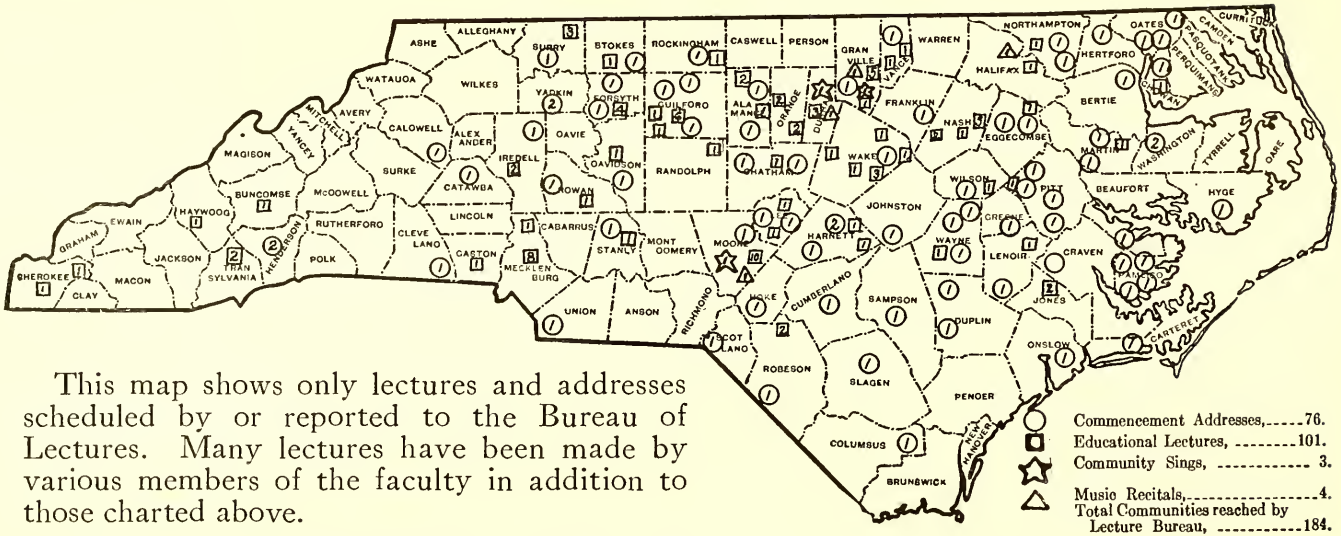


356 enrollments were received from 262 students in 79 counties who took regular university courses by mail. Note that the University is giving instruction in counties from Cherokee to Pasquotank, and from Ashe to New Hanover—the far corners of the State.

The stars represent centers where 200 physicians took the post-graduate course in Internal Medicine during the summer of 1922 organized by the Extension Division.

The squares represent centers where extension classes in regular university subjects are being given. 165 students have been enrolled in these classes.

BUREAU OF LECTURES



Commencement Addresses, ...76.
Educational Lectures, ...101.
Community Sings, ... 3.

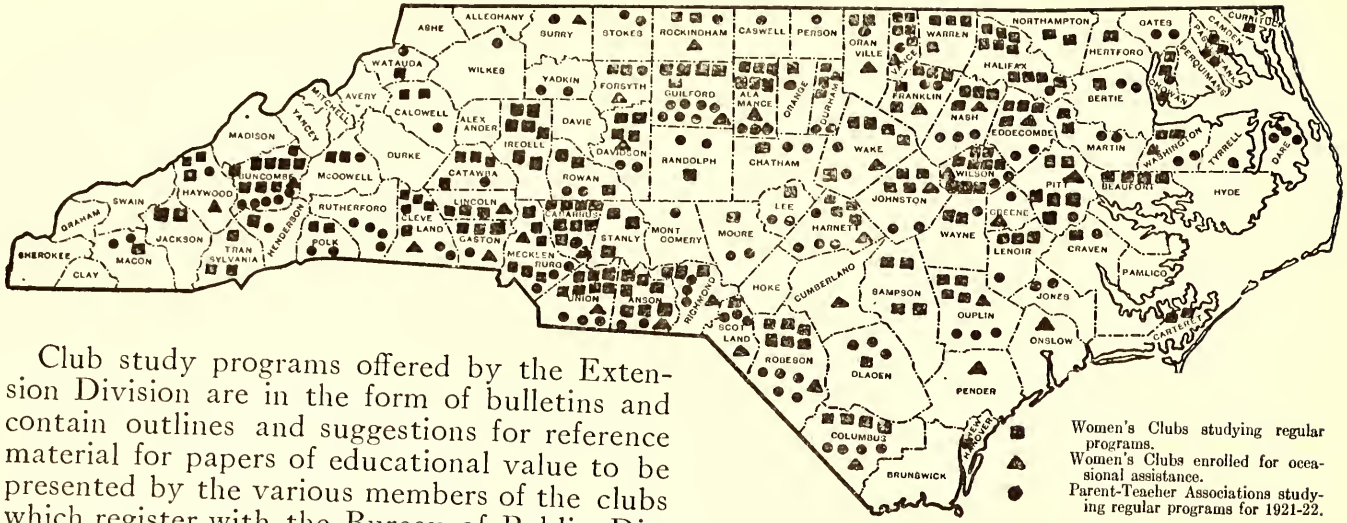
Music Recitals, ...4.
Total Communities reached by Lecture Bureau, ...184.

This map shows only lectures and addresses scheduled by or reported to the Bureau of Lectures. Many lectures have been made by various members of the faculty in addition to those charted above.

Popular or technical lectures are given by members of the faculty in response to requests from schools, clubs, community organizations, etc., also addresses for commencement or other special occasions. The organization for which the lecture is made pays the travel and subsistence expenses of the lecturer.

BUREAU OF PUBLIC DISCUSSION

Women's Club and Parent-Teacher Association Sections



Women's Clubs studying regular programs.
Women's Clubs enrolled for occasional assistance.
Parent-Teacher Associations studying regular programs for 1921-22.

Club study programs offered by the Extension Division are in the form of bulletins and contain outlines and suggestions for reference material for papers of educational value to be presented by the various members of the clubs which register with the Bureau of Public Discussion.

102 clubs enrolled for regular programs, representing 1,585 members who used 1,859 books and pamphlets loaned by the Bureau during the first year of the biennium.

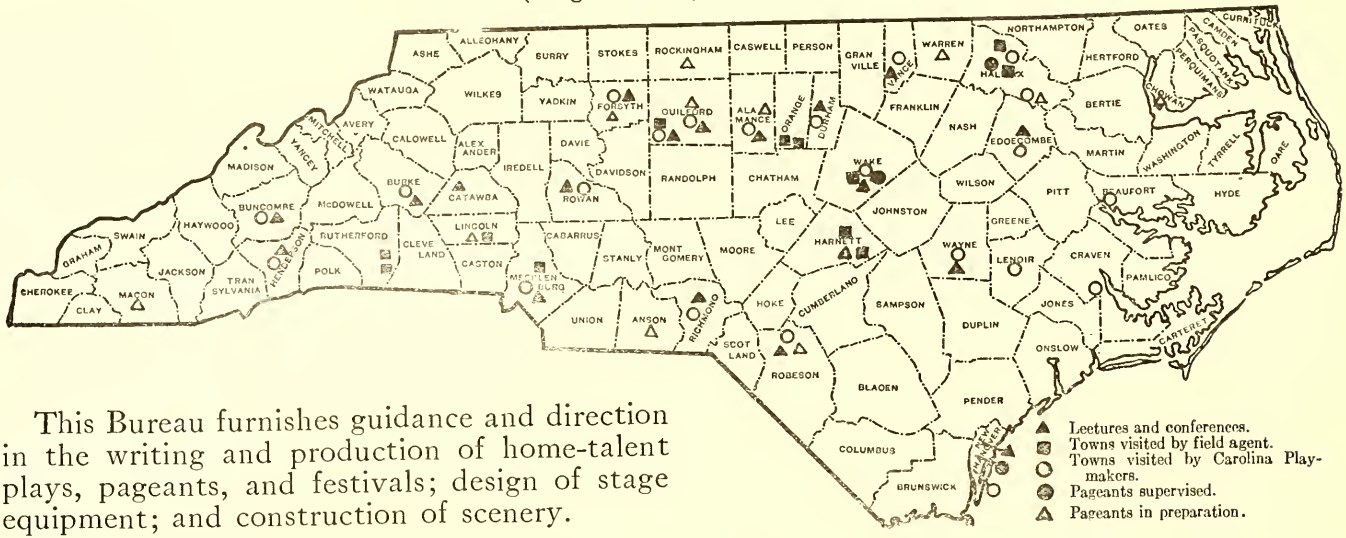
142 clubs enrolled during the second year, representing 1,602 members who used 1,123 books and pamphlets.

95 Parent-Teacher Associations, for whom a special program was prepared, enrolled for regular assistance.

Altogether 5,285 members of Women's Clubs studied, during the years covered by this report, educational programs printed by the Extension Division.

BUREAU OF COMMUNITY DRAMA

(English Department)

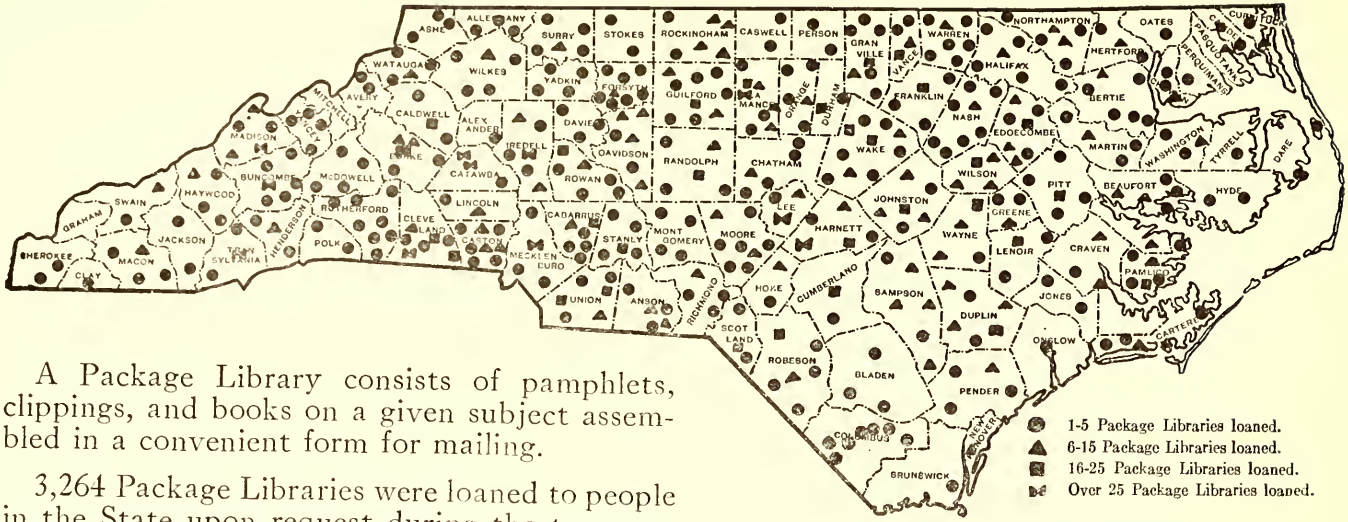


This Bureau furnishes guidance and direction in the writing and production of home-talent plays, pageants, and festivals; design of stage equipment; and construction of scenery.

The field agent who renders this service is available to communities upon request with the understanding that her expenses are to be paid by the local organization.

650 packages of playbooks, pageants, and other materials were sent out in response to requests. 225 performances were reported to the Bureau as a result of the service rendered.

LIBRARY EXTENSION SERVICE



A Package Library consists of pamphlets, clippings, and books on a given subject assembled in a convenient form for mailing.

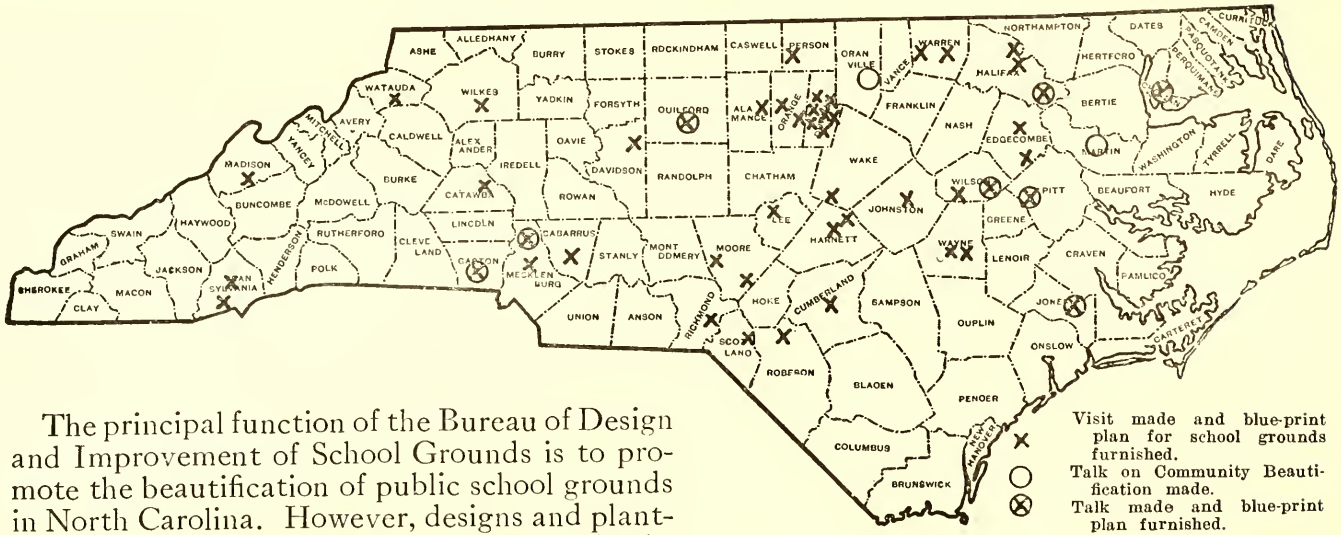
3,264 Package Libraries were loaned to people in the State upon request during the two-year period covered by this report.

A total of 13,740 books and pamphlets were sent out and 421 communities served.

The Package Library Service has reached every county in the State except two.

BUREAU OF DESIGN AND IMPROVEMENT OF SCHOOL GROUNDS

Supervised by The Department of Botany



Visit made and blue-print plan for school grounds furnished.

Talk on Community Beautification made.

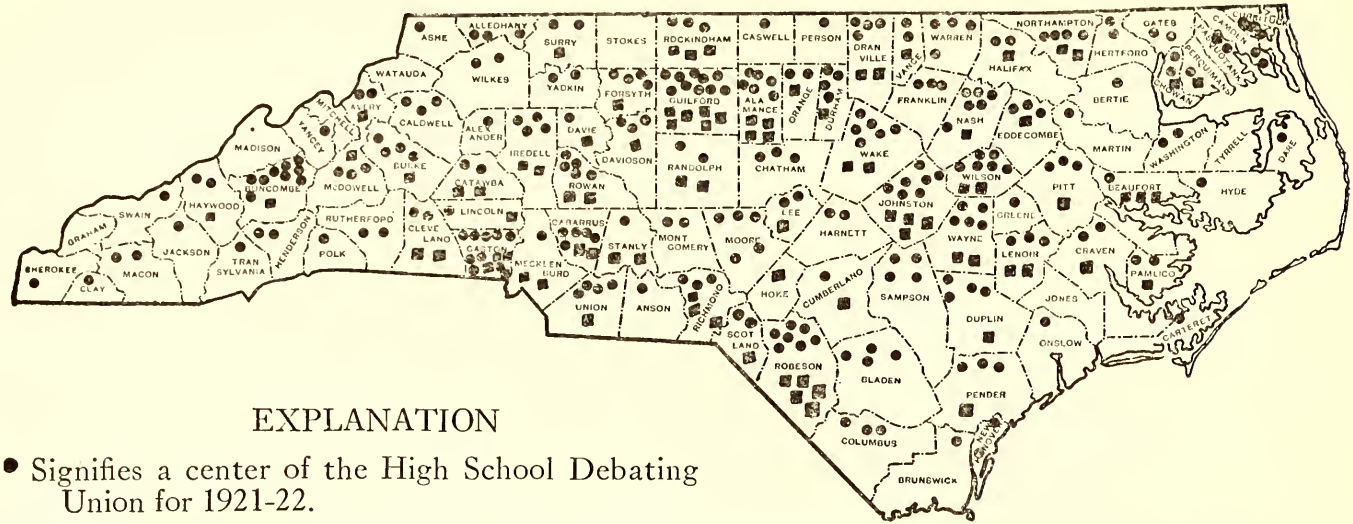
Talk made and blue-print plan furnished.

The principal function of the Bureau of Design and Improvement of School Grounds is to promote the beautification of public school grounds in North Carolina. However, designs and planting plans are also prepared for church schools, churches, and charitable institutions.

The work of this Bureau is carried on by visits of a field agent upon request, the preparation of specific plans, and the sending out of bulletins. The expenses of the field agent are paid by the school or organization using this service.

BUREAU OF HIGH SCHOOL DEBATING AND ATHLETICS

The High School Debating Union and the High School Athletic Contests



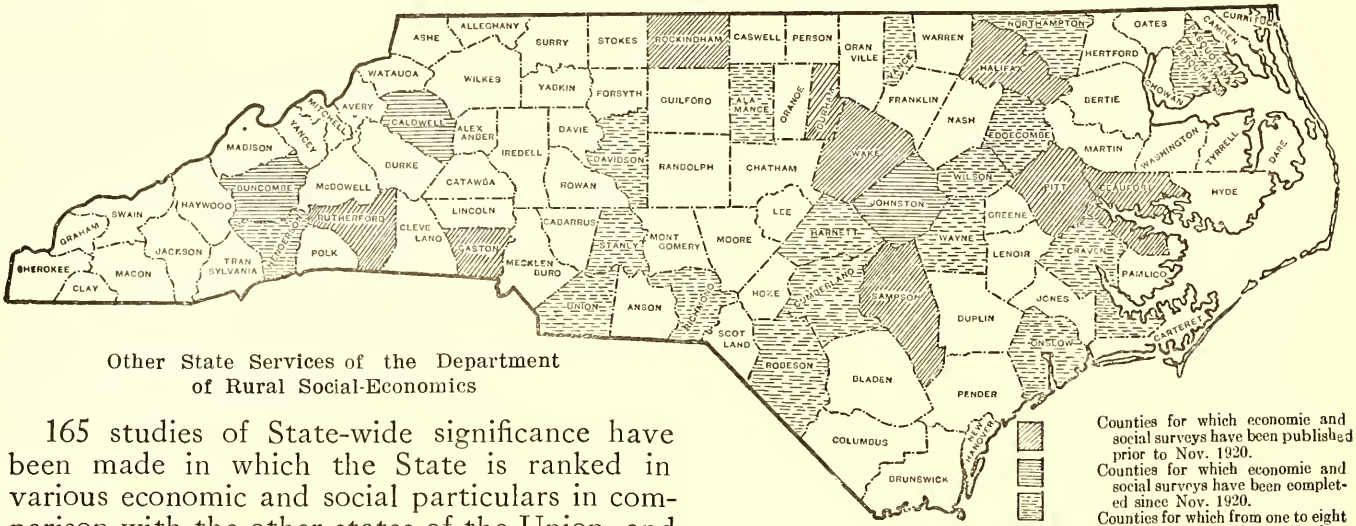
EXPLANATION

- ● Signifies a center of the High School Debating Union for 1921-22.
- ■ Signifies a high school athletic center for one or more State Championship Contests in 1921-22. 250 schools in 92 counties took part in the debates in 1921-22; 95 schools in 50 counties took part in one or more of the athletic contests during the same year.

Each year the University Extension Division conducts the affairs of the High School Debating Union which culminate in a State-wide debate at Chapel Hill, and organizes State championship contests in football, basketball, track, tennis and baseball.

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL SURVEYS

Made by the Department of Rural Social-Economics

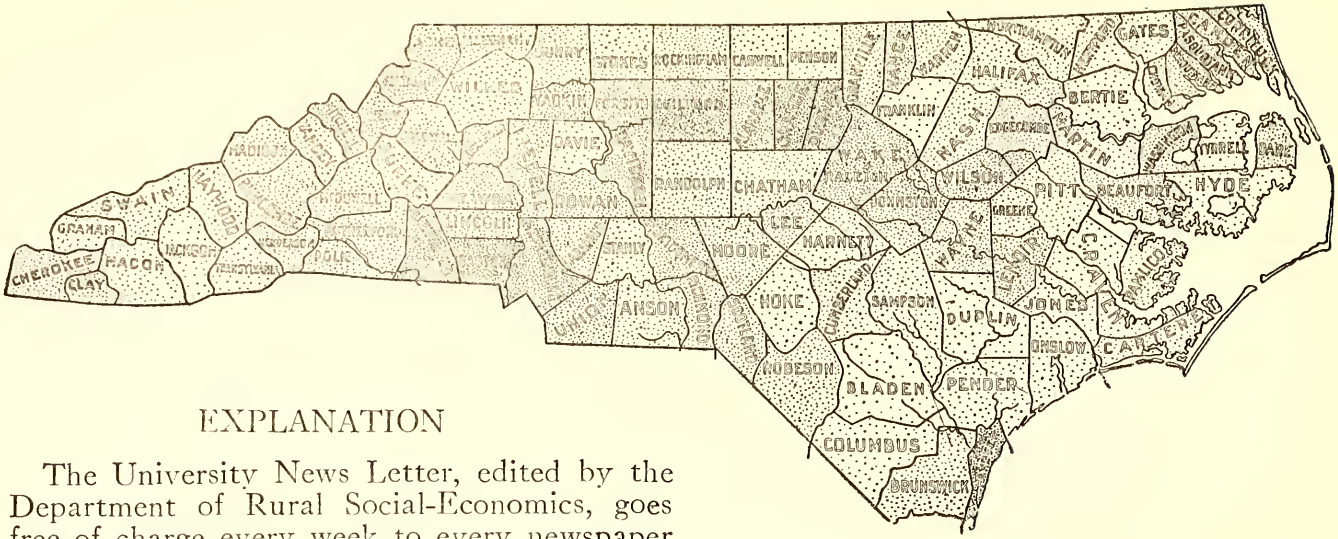


Counties for which economic and social surveys have been published prior to Nov. 1920.
Counties for which economic and social surveys have been completed since Nov. 1920.
Counties for which from one to eight economic and social studies have been completed since Nov. 1920.

Other State Services of the Department of Rural Social-Economics

165 studies of State-wide significance have been made in which the State is ranked in various economic and social particulars in comparison with the other states of the Union, and the counties ranked in comparison with one another. Many of these have been published in the University News Letter, the distribution of which is shown by the next map. Seven thousand eight hundred inquiries about North Carolina life and business, involving much research, have been answered during the two years covered by the report.

Readers in North Carolina. Each dot represents one household.



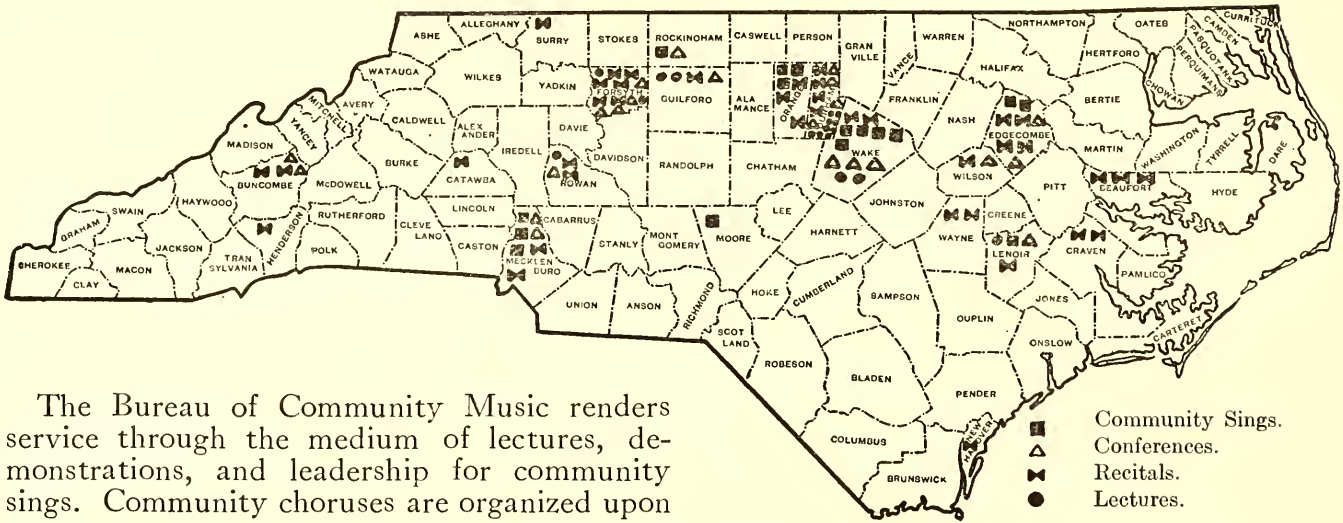
EXPLANATION

The University News Letter, edited by the Department of Rural Social-Economics, goes free of charge every week to every newspaper in North Carolina, to sixty papers in other states, to 16,000 North Carolina homes, and to other readers in forty states of the Union and seven other countries of the world. It is devoted to the economic, social, and civic problems of North Carolina. It carries to the people of the State brief weekly reports of studies focused upon their problems and puzzles of life and livelihood.

The News Letter could not be given to the people of the State but for the seminar library of the Department of Rural Social-Economics, which is perhaps the largest and best library of this sort in the United States. This library not only serves the students on the campus but through the News Letter conveys accurate essential information about North Carolina to the readers, thinkers, and leaders of the State.

BUREAU OF COMMUNITY MUSIC

(Music Department)



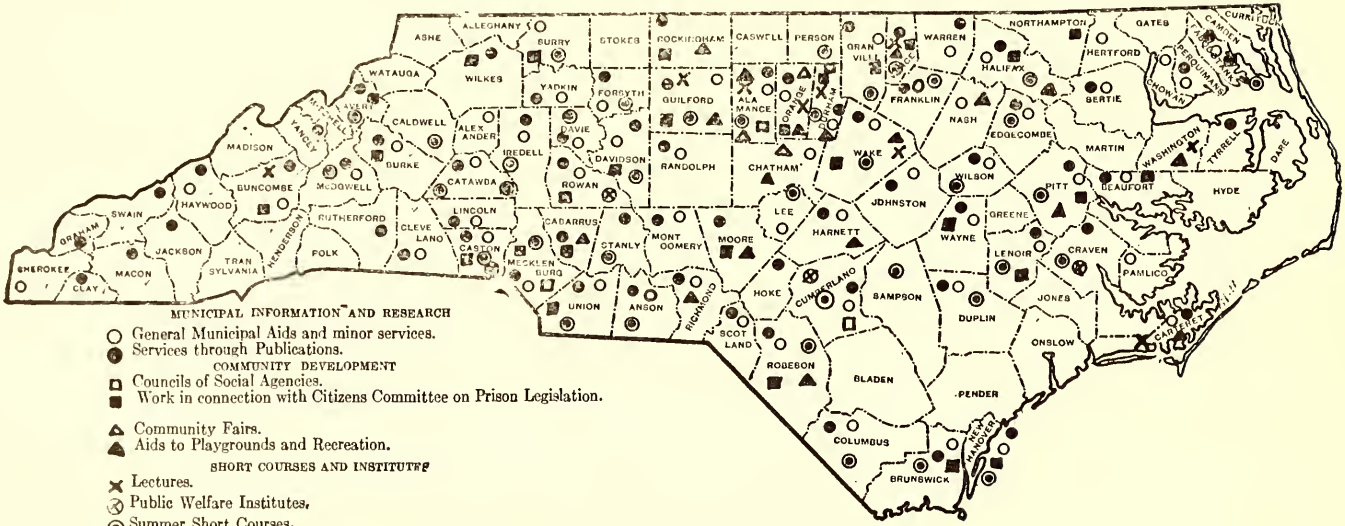
The Bureau of Community Music renders service through the medium of lectures, demonstrations, and leadership for community sings. Community choruses are organized upon request.

A limited number of piano and organ recitals are given each year; also combination vocal and instrumental recitals. The University Glee Club makes two State tours each year.

In addition to the services rendered as described above, during the biennium 3 bulletins, 8 magazine articles and approximately 1,000 letters were written.

BUREAUS OF MUNICIPAL INFORMATION AND RESEARCH—COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT—SHORT COURSES AND INSTITUTES

Maintained by The School of Public Welfare



BUREAU OF COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

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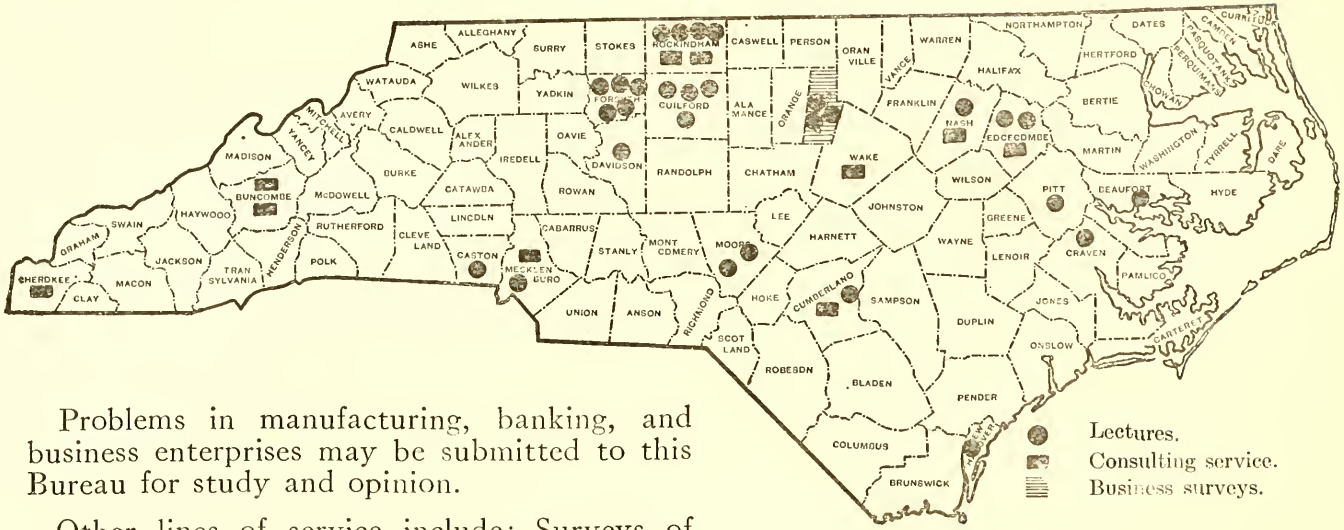
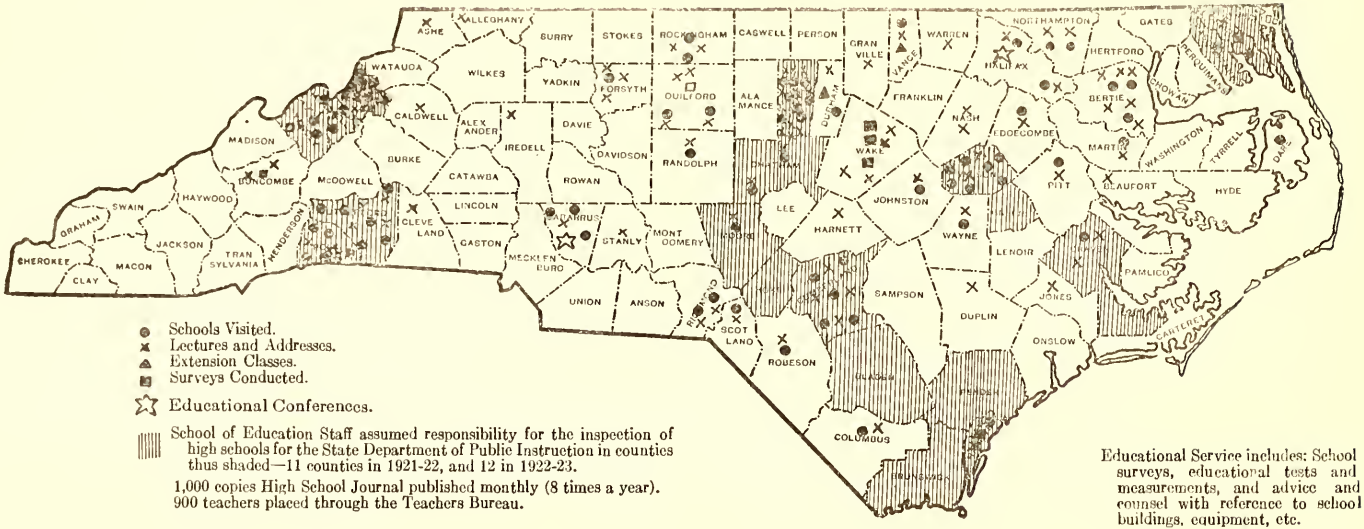


Problems in manufacturing, banking, and business enterprises may be submitted to this Bureau for study and opinion.

Other lines of service include: Surveys of natural resources, transportation, and trade territories; special lectures for civic clubs and business organizations; investment information service; reading lists on business topics; short lecture courses on investments, labor problems, etc.

EDUCATIONAL SERVICE AND EXTRA-CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

of the School of Education



- Schools Visited.
- Lectures and Addresses.
- Extension Classes.
- Surveys Conducted.
- Educational Conferences.
- School of Education Staff assumed responsibility for the inspection of high schools for the State Department of Public Instruction in counties thus shaded—11 counties in 1921-22, and 12 in 1922-23.

1,000 copies High School Journal published monthly (8 times a year).
900 teachers placed through the Teachers Bureau.

Educational Service includes: School surveys, educational tests and measurements, and advice and counsel with reference to school buildings, equipment, etc.

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Reading Lists on Business Topics
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University News Letter
Piano and Organ Recitals
Municipal Information
Educational Rallies
Economic and Social Surveys
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Community Organization
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Design and Improvement of School Grounds
School Surveys
High School Athletic Contests
Educational Tests
Educational Information and Assistance
Loan of Home-Talent Plays

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The University of North Carolina is—save the mark!—an octopus. There is no better definition which will suggest the completeness with which this institution is assuming charge of the intellectual thought and purpose of this State.

For its tentacles are stretched out over North Carolina, touching the life in every hamlet, village and city. It is drawing to itself the best that this State has to offer in the way of scholarly ambitions of its aspiring youth.

But it is a benevolent octopus. What it takes, it returns manyfold. It touches communities not to blight but to bless. Its ambition is to liberate rather than enslave the minds of men. The power which it seeks is the power to serve the State.

No institution in North Carolina deserves so well of the people. No institution possesses such infinite possibilities for enriching the life of the State and for keeping the feet of our citizens forever planted in the paths of progress.—*Asheville Times Editorial.*

Vol. II, No. 9 January 1, 1923

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA EXTENSION BULLETIN

HOME AND FARM OWNERSHIP

NORTH CAROLINA CLUB YEAR-BOOK, 1921-22

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA PRESS
CHAPEL HILL, N. C.
Entered at the postoffice as second-class matter.

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UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA EXTENSION BULLETIN

HOME AND FARM OWNERSHIP

NORTH CAROLINA CLUB YEAR-BOOK, 1921-22

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA PRESS
CHAPEL HILL, N. C.

OUR LANDLESS MULTITUDES. North Carolina has twenty-two million idle wilderness acres, a hundred thousand vacant town and city lots, and a million three hundred eighty thousand landless, homeless people, town and country. Almost exactly one-third of our white farmers and two-thirds of our negro farmers own no land. The people who live in rented dwellings in our towns and cities are from two-thirds to three-fourths of the various municipal populations.

These are the people in North Carolina who own not an inch of the soil they cultivate nor a single shingle in the roofs over their heads. They are fifty-two per cent or more than half the entire population of the state.

Enduring social structures cannot be built on landownership by the few and land-orphanage for the many. Civilization is rooted and grounded in the home-owning, home-loving, home-defending instincts.—E. C. Branson.

HOME-OWNERSHIP AND NATIONAL STABILITY. There is no government for the many while the land belongs to the few; for the history of the world teaches that the men who own the land will rule it.

The home owner is the most constructive and at the same time the most important force in our civilization. He is a pioneer in progress, he is a lover of peace, but he is a very demon in battle when danger threatens the land he loves.

The small farm owned by the man who tills it is the best plant-bed in the world in which to grow a patriot. Such a consideration brings wealth to the soil and health to the souls of men. On such a soil it is possible to produce anything, from two pecks of potatoes to the hill to a President of the United States.

The wizard of the Northwest, James J. Hill, once said: Land without population is a wilderness, population without land is a mob.

Every consideration of progress and safety urges us to employ all wise and just measures to get our lands into the hands of the many and forestall that most destructive of all monopolies—the monopoly of the soil. —Thomas W. Bickett.

WHO WILL SOLVE THIS PROBLEM? Our tenant farmers, courageous, honest, patient and long-suffering, when shall they see light? When shall their burdens be lifted? In the spring time they go forth, and with our brothers in black set their hands to the plow. They bend their backs to the burden, and when the first frost falls they have added $1,000,000,000 to the wealth of the world. But small, indeed, is their share and meager their recompense. Every two years, according to the government census, they move from one place to another.

They build no homes, they live in rude huts, no flowers about their dwellings, no trees to shade them from the sun, consumed by the summer's heat and chilled by the winter's cold, no lawns about their houses, no garden fences; and with the accursed cotton plant crowding the very threshold of their rude dwellings and thrusting its limbs into their very windows, their lot is indeed pitiable.

Their sons and daughters come to manhood and womanhood, desert the farms and are lost in some distant community. Finally, when their pilgrimage is over, they are laid to rest in the rude churchyards of the country, others take their places and continue the fight. They have established no permanent homes, their kith and kin are scattered far and wide, and the places that knew them once know them no more forever.

I have no word of criticism for men like these. I know them, I have lived among them. I sprang from them. Who will lead these men out of the wilderness of their troubles? Men whom they elevate to high offices in the state and nation are ever ready to teach them politics, but they are not prepared to help them solve their problems of life. A fearful responsibility rests at this time upon men in authority and men in high offices. Will they heed it?—Joseph T. Holleman.

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NORTH CAROLINA CLUB

1921-1922

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FOREWORD

The North Carolina Club at the University of North Carolina has been in existence since November 1914. Its particular field of interest and activity is indicated by the titles of the Club Year-Books:

North Carolina: Resources, Advantages, and Opportunities. 1915-16.
Wealth and Welfare in North Carolina. 1916-17.
County Government and County Affairs in North Carolina. 1917-18.
State Reconstruction Studies. 1919-20.
North Carolina: Industrial and Urban. 1920-21.
Home and Farm Ownership in North Carolina. 1921-22.
What Next for North Carolina? 1922-23.

Manifestly the North Carolina Club considers North Carolina to be a proper study for North Carolinians. Not to know the glory that was Greece and the grandeur that was Rome is to be sadly crippled in culture; but not to know the Home State is to be even more sadly crippled in competent citizenship. Or such is the creed of the Club.

And so these last eight years the North Carolina Club has been exploring North Carolina, in fields economic, social and civic. It has been hunting down the problems and puzzles of life and livelihood in the mother state. It has been busy defining conditions, causes, and consequences, and equally busy considering remedial constructive measures. It has been trying to realize in vivid way the forces, influences, tendencies, drifts and movements, the ideals, institutions, agencies, men and measures that made North Carolina what she was day before yesterday. It has been taking stock of what North Carolina is today and what she can be tomorrow.

The young men of the club are students of history in the world-at-large, but they cherish dreams of being makers of history in their little world at home. Competent citizenship and effective public service is the ideal of the club. The club motto is: "North Carolina—the best spot on earth to live in! If it isn't so we'll make it so."

The club holds with Emerson that no man will read history aright who thinks that what was done in a remote age by men whose names have resounded far has any deeper sense than what he is doing today. They agree with Milton that—

> Prime wisdom is
> Not to know at large of things remote
> But that which daily lies about us.

The steering committee of the club early in the fall term of each year bulletins the outline of the studies proposed; dates the reports of the discussions for fortnightly meetings throughout the college year; calls for volunteers and promptly crystallizes the program of the club at its first meeting in October. The reports of these fortnightly studies and discussions make the chapters of the Club Year-Book, and work that reaches the high level of University standards entitles the student to credit for class promotion and college degrees.

The Year-Book which is now given to the reading public in North Carolina presents studies in town and country tenancy on the one hand, and home and farm ownership in town and country regions on the other. The chapters refer not to North Carolina alone, but to the landless, homeless multitudes in every country of Christendom today; (1) the facts of tenancy in North Carolina, in the United States, and in other countries of the world, (2) the status of the farm tenant at home and abroad, (3) the causes producing the landless estate of men, (4) the effects of landlessness upon personality, the home, the community, the commonwealth and civilization in general, (5) the self-help remedies, (6) the private helping-agencies at hand, and (7) state and federal aid to landless men.

Every chapter evidences the belief of the club that civilization is rooted and grounded in the home-owning, home-loving, home-defending instincts, that the basis of civilization is shifting from land ownership, to the command of currency and credit, and that in this shift civilization is increasingly in peril.

There is no single book in existence that covers all the phases of this important subject. The club has been obliged to ransack the history of every country on the globe and to sweep its findings into a heap. Fortunately the seminar library of the Department of Rural Social Economics at the University of North Carolina is perhaps the best library of its sort in America; which immensely lessened the drudgeries of the students.

The program of the club this year is indicated by the phrase, What Next for North Carolina? What is the next step forward that the state is ready to take and can be persuaded to take in its march toward the front among American commonwealths? For the best answer to this question from any member of the club a fifty dollar prize in gold has been offered by Hon. Josiah W. Bailey, Raleigh.

It is fairly clear to the volunteers who are working at the problems of progress in North Carolina that our rank in the future will depend not on the size of the state or the number of people she contains or the volume of farm and industrial wealth produced year by year, but on the culture and character of her sons and daughters.

The garners of Sicily are empty now, said Lowell, but the bees from all climes still fetch honey from the tiny garden plot of Theocritus. On a map of the world you may cover Judea with your thumb, Athens with a finger tip, and neither of them figures in the prices current; but they still lord it in the thought and action of every civilized man. Did not Dante cover with his hood all that was Italy six hundred years ago? Material success is good, but only as the necessary preliminary of better things.

These are sayings that the club is constantly repeating because of their immense significance.—E. C. Branson, Chairman Steering Committee, and Editor of the Year-Books.

FARM TENANCY IN THE UNITED STATES

S. H. Hobbs, Jr., University Faculty

Forty Year Increases, 1880-1920

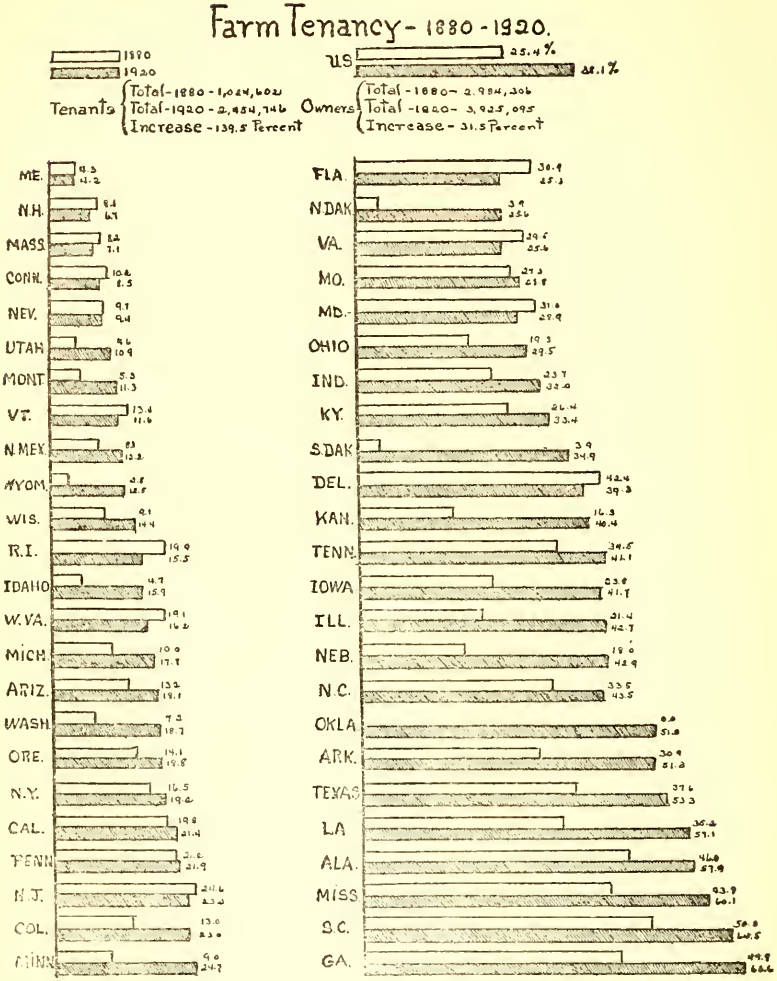
During the last forty years farm tenancy has made staggering increases in the United States—in particular in the South, the Middle West, and the Lake Shore States. We have been moving rapidly as a nation out of a land of home and farm ownership into a land of home and farm tenancy. Forty years ago just one-fourth of all the farms in the United States were operated by tenants. Today 38.1 per cent are operated by tenants. Every decade has ushered in an increased tenancy rate. During these forty years the number of farms operated by owners increased only 31.5 per cent, while the farms operated by tenants increased 139.5 per cent, or more than four times as fast. Every geographic area in the United States, except the New England States which long ago moved out of agriculture into manufacture, has increased in farm tenant ratios. The increase has been from around one million farm tenants forty years ago to nearly two and a half million farmer tenants today.

Farm Tenant Increases

Farm tenancy has never been a problem in New England because her soils and crops are unsuited to tenant farming. Excepting Maine, it is not an important agricultural region and farm tenancy has remained static throughout the last forty years, standing still at 7.5 per cent. The same is largely true of the Middle Atlantic states, where tenant farmers have always cultivated about one-fifth of the farms. In the Pacific Coast and Rocky Mountain states, tenancy ratios have risen or fallen slightly as farming has been profitable or unprofitable. In the great agricultural region of the Middle West and the Great Lakes, farm tenancy has steadily increased, the rise being from one-fifth of all farms operated by tenants forty years ago to nearly one-third at the present time. In four of the Corn Belt states the tenancy ratios now run beyond two-fifths—in Kansas, Iowa, Illinois, and Nebraska.

The magnitude of farm tenancy cannot be measured in terms of farms only. In most cases farms operated by tenants differ in size and value from farms operated by owners. How enormous this system is can more readily be gathered from the following facts:

In 1920 part owner tenancy involved 89 million acres and nearly 4 billion dollars' worth of land and buildings. Full tenancy involved 265 million acres and nearly 24 billion dollars' worth of land and buildings. Managers of farms had charge of 54 million acres and 3 billion dollars' worth of farm land and buildings. All told, tenants and managers operated 31 billion dollars' worth of land and buildings, the land acreage being 378 million acres, or more than twelve times the area of North Carolina. All told tenants operated 44 per cent of the improved acreage and 46 per cent of the farm land value of the United States.


Farm Tenancy - 1880 - 1920.
1880
1920
Tenants
Total - 1880 - 1,024,602
Total - 1920 - 2,454,746
Increase - 139.5 Percent
US
25.4 %
Owners
Total - 1880 - 2,984,306
Total - 1920 - 3,925,095
Increase - 31.5 Percent
ME.
N.H.
MASS.
CONN.
NEV.
UTAH
MONT.
VT.
N.MEX.
WYOM.
WIS.
R.I.
IDAHO
W.VA.
MICH.
ARIZ.
WASH.
ORE.
N.Y.
CAL.
PENN.
N.J.
COL.
MINN.
FLA.
N.DAK.
VA.
MO.
MD.
OHIO
IND.
KY.
S.DAK.
DEL.
KAN.
TENN.
IOWA
ILL.
NEB.
N.C.
OKLA.
ARK.
TEXAS
LA.
ALA.
MISS.
S.C.
GA.

In 1900, in only five states was more than half the improved acreage operated by tenants. In 1910 there were eight states in which more than half of the improved acreage was operated by tenants, and in 1920 there were twelve such states. The number that had passed the same mark in respect to land valuation was two in 1900, five in 1910, and ten in 1920.

Of equal significance is the fact that there were 23,632 fewer farms operated by owners in 1920 than in 1910, while there were 100,128 more farms operated by tenants in 1920 than ten years before. The improved acreage operated by owners increased only 1.4 per cent, while the improved acreage operated by tenants increased 12.5 per cent.

During the five years from the opening of the Federal Land banks to 1922 about a half billion dollars had been made available for farmers through the Federal and Joint Stock Land banks. Very little of this went to tenants, but had it all been available for tenants it would have met the first mortgage on less than five per cent of the land now operated by them.

In the light of the above facts, the tide of tenancy is shown by the latest census to have continued its upward flow with little or no abatement.

Tenancy in the South

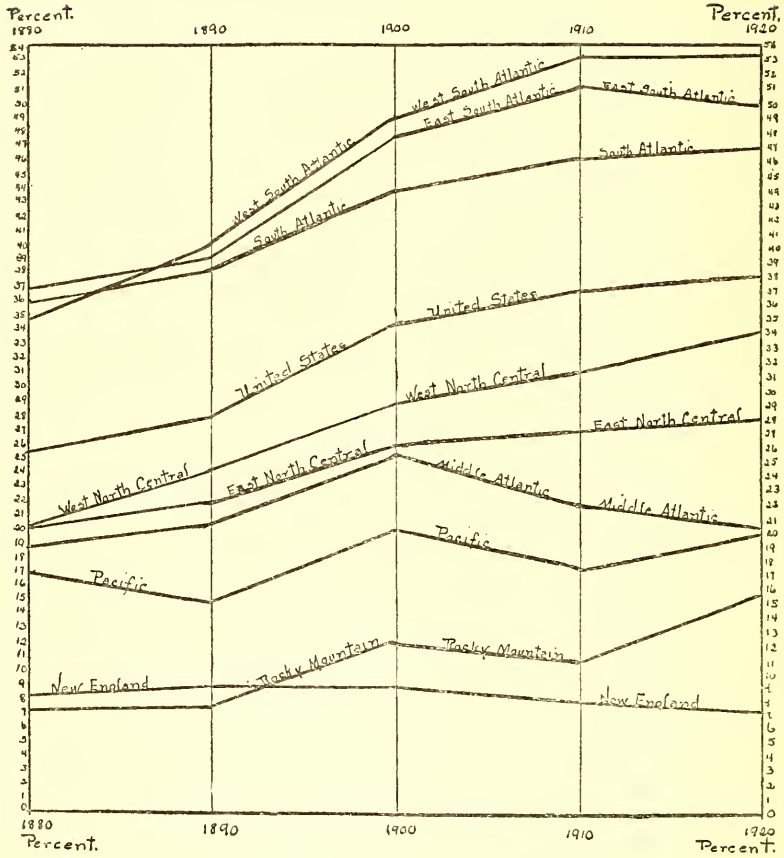
The farm tenant problem is a serious one in any state or county, and the increased ratios of tenancy are beginning at last to attract attention in America. If it is a serious problem elsewhere it is an alarming problem in the South, for it is in the South that tenancy has made most rapid increases both in the number of tenants and in the per cent of farms operated by tenants. Forty years ago just a little more than one-third of all farms in the sixteen Southern states were cultivated by tenants. To-day exactly one-half of all the farms in the South are operated by tenants, and in cotton and tobacco counties nearly three-fourths of the farmers are tenants. The farms operated by tenants in the South number 1,591,059 and these landless farmers with their families number eight million souls.

American farm tenancy is largely a Southern problem for it is in the South that almost exactly two-thirds of all the tenants of the entire nation are concentrated. To be exact, 64.5 per cent of all farm tenants in the United States are located in the sixteen Southern states. And the great bulk of these are massed in the eight hundred counties that produce cotton and tobacco, the two best tenant crops known to man anywhere on earth.

A White Man's Problem

Contrary to the prevailing notion, Southern farm tenancy is a white man's problem; not so for every Southern state, but so for the South as a whole. In the thirteen states that produce cotton as a cash crop, 61.5 per cent of all tenants are white farmers and only 38.5 per cent are negro farmers. If the other three states were included the white tenant ratios would be even higher. There are 154,348 more white than negro farm tenants in the South, and with their families they outnumber the negro

Farm Tenancy.
Forty Year Increases,- 1880-1920.
By Geographic Divisions.



farm tenant population by 800,000 souls. In eleven of the sixteen Southern states there are more white than negro tenants. In the great cotton state of Texas nearly four-fifths of all the farm tenants are white.

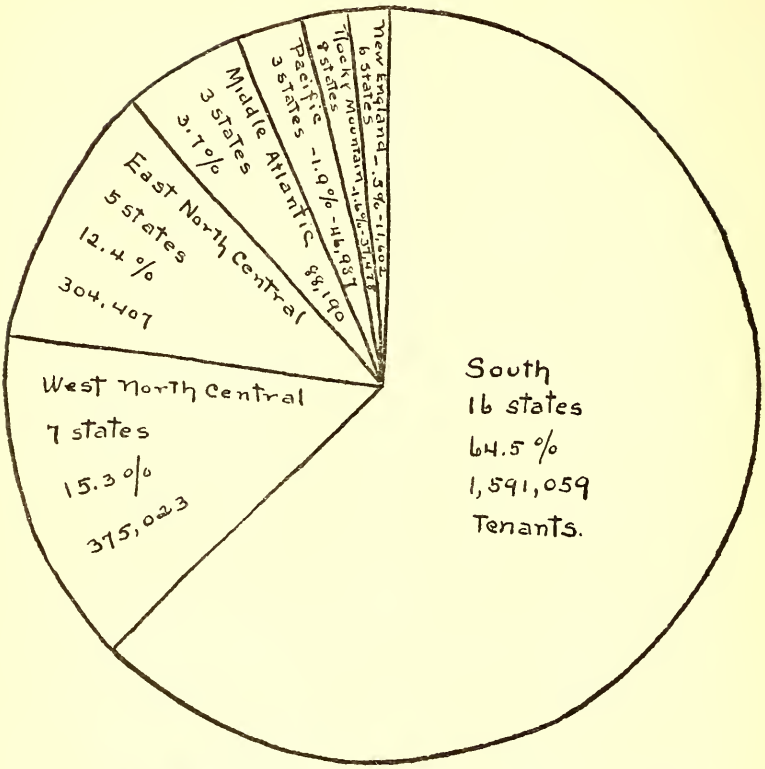
The Facts in Carolina

In North Carolina farm tenancy is concentrated in the cotton and tobacco counties. It is mainly an eastern problem. But in North Carolina just as in the South as a whole it is a white man's problem. The white tenants outnumber the negro tenants by 10,000. Their families counted, the white farm tenant population is 50,000 greater than that of the negro. As the years pass, the ratio steadily works against the whites and in favor of the negroes, for throughout the South negroes are increasing in the ratios of farm ownership while the whites show a steady increase in farm tenancy. In other words, the negroes are moving into farm ownership, and the whites into farm tenancy. Thus the problem is increasingly a white man's problem. In Virginia more than three-fourths of all the negro farmers own their farms. In North Carolina more than a third of the negro farmers are owners, not tenants. During the last census period their gain in farm ownership was small, but it has been startling during the last forty years.

What the Decreases Mean

The fatal law seems to be that the more populous and prosperous an agricultural area is, the fewer are the farmers who own the land they cultivate. A decreasing tenant ratio means, it seems, so far in America, a dwindling agriculture. Tenancy thrives where land is rich and farming is profitable. It loses out elsewhere. Poor soil areas will produce neither crops nor tenants. The New England states have long been of decreasing importance in agriculture and so tenancy has been static. During the last ten years the tenant rate for the United States increased just a little over one per cent, and people spread the good tidings that tenancy was solving itself. And so it is in some regions, for the farm tenants are moving off the farms and into towns, which accounts for the increased ratio of farm owners. For the first time in our history the farm population of the United States showed an actual loss of farmers during a census period. Between 1910 and 1920, twenty-four states lost in the number of farms and twenty-three states, exactly the same states with only three exceptions, lost in the number of farm tenants. The loss in the number of farms was due to the exodus of farm tenants. Just two Southern states decreased in the ratio of farm tenants and they are the only states in the South that also decreased in the number of farms during the last ten-year period. An increase in tenantry means an increase in the importance of agriculture. A decrease in tenantry means a dwindling agriculture, fewer farms and less land in cultivation.

It is true in this state, for the great agricultural region of the east made a great gain in tenancy while in the Piedmont and mountain regions tenancy declined. There the tenants in great swarms move off the farms



Distribution of Farm Tenants.
1920.

and into the manufacturing towns and cities. They have changed their lot from farm tenants to wage earners in mill villages, and today the Piedmont and mountain counties have fewer farms, and farming is not relatively as important as it was ten years ago. Absorbing farm tenants in manufacturing enterprises throughout the South, as in the western part of this state, seems to be one of the main solutions of the farm tenant problem. It has worked to wonderful advantage in the mid-state and western half of North Carolina. The South will decrease in farm tenancy when we move over into industrial development and our tenants become laborers in manufacturing establishments.

We need a better balance between agriculture and manufacture, so that our tenants can become a farm asset instead of a liability. Or we need fundamental changes in the social-economics of land tenure—in particular in the principle of taxing land values.

Economic and Social Aspects

"The last ten years has seen a rapid increase in the percentage of farms cultivated by tenants. Along with this has come a distressing slump in the social and recreative activities of farming districts which is having its influence in driving the best type of farm-bred boys and girls to the city.

"The temporary leasing of land is often an advantage both to the owner and the tenant, but the creation of tenancy as a permanent feature of agriculture would be an unmitigated misfortune. A rural community made up of farm owners has better houses, roads, and schools than a community of tenants. Whatever the owner puts in his farm to improve it is his own. Whatever the tenant takes out is largely his own. What he puts in, in the way of capital, knowledge and skill in maintaining soil fertility, goes largely to the land owner under our present short-sighted and short-timed tenancy contracts. The result is, the tenant does not nail boards on the barn, does not plant trees along the roads, or take any interest in doing any of the things that are needed to make rural life satisfactory.

"Ownership has other values. It exerts a great influence on human character. The owner of a farm has a special pride in the fact that he is a permanent member of the community and that he has a stake in everything which builds up its social and economic life. Tenantry, in America, is on the contrary migratory, and tenants are rapidly becoming class conscious and discontented. Unless this is checked, we are certain to face the same unrest and disorder that led to revolution in France and Russia and to avert which some of the most enlightened countries of Europe have made national aid to farm-buying a government policy."

Tenancy is bad for the man, and it is bad for the land. It is bad for the land because the tenant destroys soil fertility and farm buildings. The millions of acres of worn-out land in the South today are solemn warnings of the evils of tenancy. The bank account savings of tenants, the type of homes in which they live, their entire earthly possessions, afford abundant proof of the futility of trying to accumulate wealth under Southern farm tenancy conditions. Economically, socially, and morally

ownership is far preferable to tenancy. The home owner is interested in the economic and social development of the community. The moral effect of tenancy is testified to by the small per cent of tenants who either belong to or attend churches. Church membership ratios are low throughout the South where tenancy ratios are high.

The English rural economist, Arthur Young, said: "Give a man the secure possession of a bleak rock, and he will turn it into a garden; give him a nine-year's lease on a garden and he will convert it into a desert."

The economic and social effects of farm tenancy may be partly summarized as follows:

A. Economic effects:

1. Wears out the soil.

2. Compels a one-crop system. Allows little food and feed farming and livestock of the meat and milk variety.

3. Small-size farms, a few acres cultivated intensively by hand methods.

4. Small annual yield of farm output per farmer and per farm, because of small farms and lack of diversity in farm products.

5. The inability to accumulate wealth with which to move out of tenancy into ownership. Small bank account savings, or taxable property of any sort. The Southern tenant consumes his wealth in producing it.

B. Social effects:

1. Tenancy strangles intellectual development.

a. School attendance of tenant children is low because the children are often kept out of school to work, during both the planting and harvesting seasons.

b. Tenants move upon an average of once every two years. In changing schools the children are handicapped in their progress, or lose contact with school altogether.

c. The stimulus for intellectual development is lacking because increased production due to increased knowledge is shared by the landlord.

d. The schools themselves suffer because they serve a transient population lacking interest in school matters.

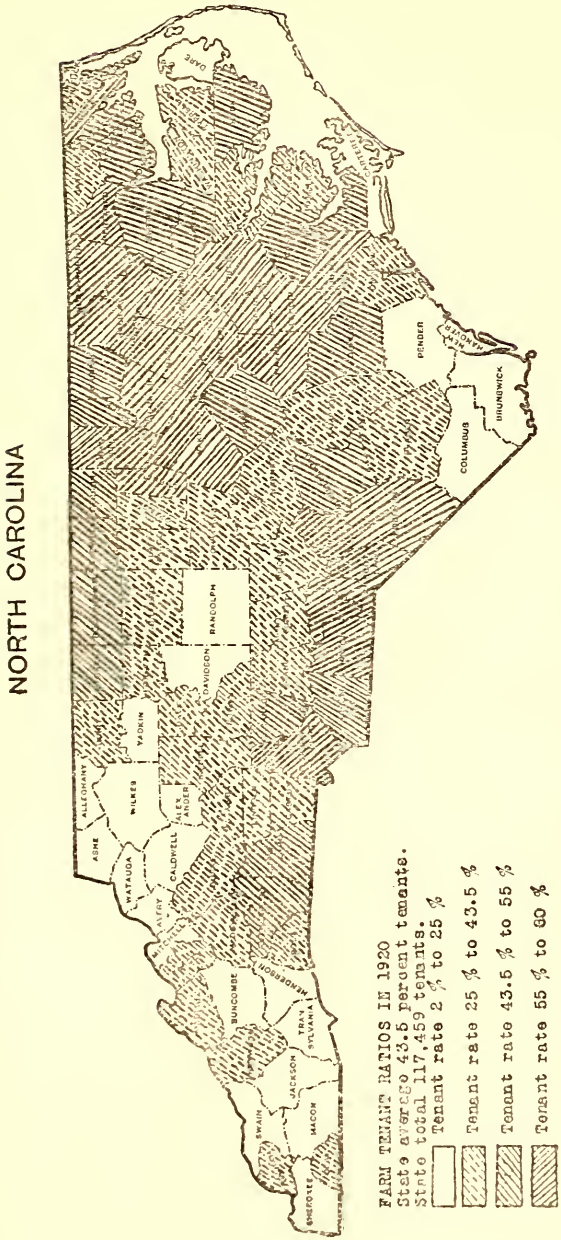
e. Tenancy and illiteracy go hand in hand. They are twins at birth and boon companions throughout life, as Professor Branson is fond of saying.

2. Tenancy hinders moral development.

a. High tenancy rates mean low church membership rates as all census and church surveys show.

b. Church attendance by tenants is far lower than by owners. They move too often to form church ties.

c. The loose methods by which tenants are financed tend to promote dishonesty on both sides.


NORTH CAROLINA
DARE
PENDER
BRUNSWICK
COLUMBUS
RANDOLPH
DAVIDSON
WATAUGA
CALDWELL
ALLEGHANY
ASHE
WILKES
SWAIN
JACKSON
MACON
BUNCOMBE
HENDERSON
TRANSYLVANIA
FARM TENANT RATIOS IN 1920
State average 43.5 percent tenants.
State total 117,459 tenants.
Tenant rate 2 % to 25 %
Tenant rate 25 % to 43.5 %
Tenant rate 43.5 % to 55 %
Tenant rate 55 % to 60 %

3. Tenancy breeds class consciousness which is always distructive. It means land orphanage on the one side, land aristocracy on the other, with few binding ties, and little social intercourse. It breeds undemocratic tendencies in American life.

4. It prevents the promotion of rural organizations of all kinds: churches, schools, community clubs, social clubs, county libraries, good roads, and the like.

5. The deadliest enemy to coöperative marketing is farm tenancy, especially southern farm tenancy.

6. It hinders the effectiveness of political development because tenants are not interested in the ballot. They are indifferent to social and political development. Many never vote because they move too often to be allowed to vote. They have little incentive to use the ballot.

7. Home ownership brings out the highest and noblest qualities of man. The home owner is a home lover and home defender, a builder of home, community, state and nation. For the tenant the incentive is lacking.

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October 31, 1921.

Farm Tenancy in the United States

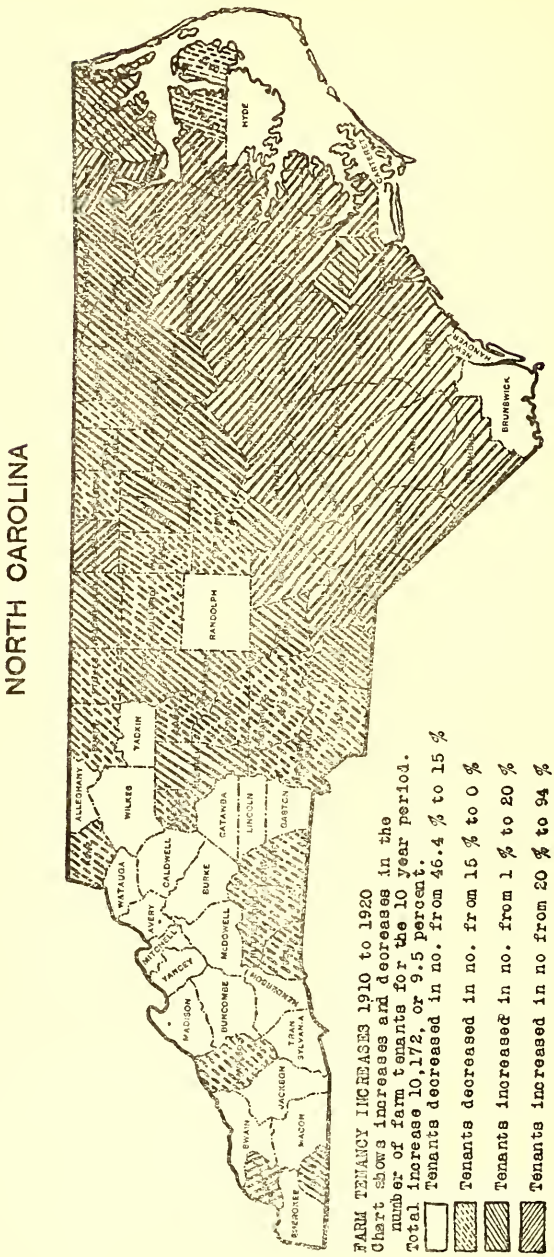
Showing tenancy ratios by states in 1880 and 1920. Based on the reports of the Census Bureau.

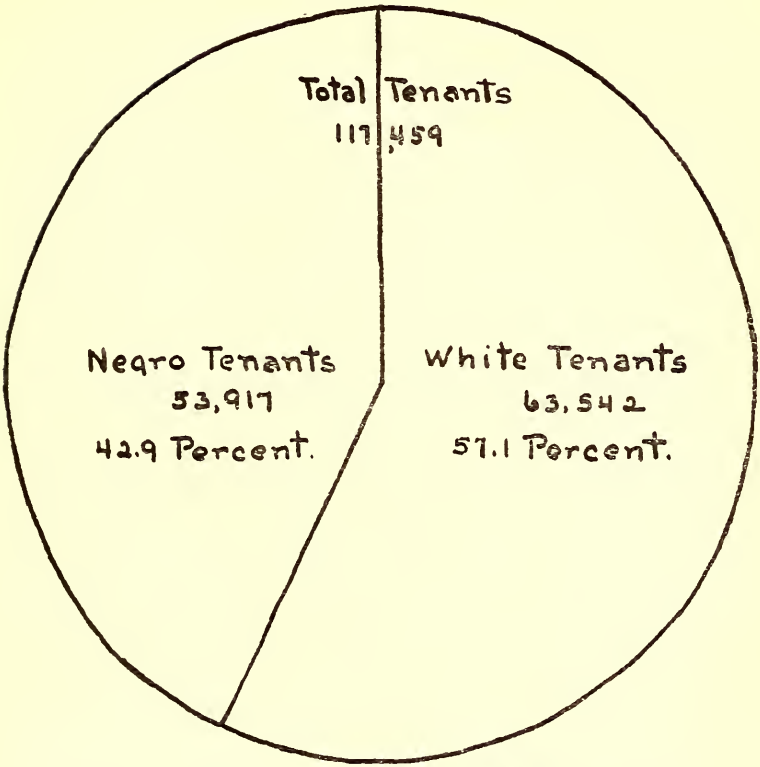
In 1880 the farms in the United States cultivated by tenants were 1,024,601; in 1920, the number of tenant farms was 2,454,746. In forty years the number was multiplied by nearly two and a half. During these forty years the ratio of tenant farms to all farms increased from 25.5 per cent to 38.1 per cent.

Department of Rural Social Economics, University of North Carolina.

		Per cent of farms operated by tenants	
Rank	State	1920	1880
1.	Maine	4.2	4.3
2.	New Hampshire	6.7	8.1
3.	Massachusetts	7.1	8.2
4.	Connecticut	8.5	10.2
5.	Nevada	9.4	9.7
6.	Utah	10.9	4.6
7.	Montana	11.3	5.3
8.	Vermont	11.6	13.4

9.	New Mexico	12.2	8.1
10.	Wyoming	12.5	2.8
11.	Wisconsin	14.4	9.1
12.	Rhode Island	15.5	19.9
13.	Idaho	15.9	4.7
14.	West Virginia	16.2	19.1
15.	Michigan	17.7	10.0
16.	Arizona	18.1	13.2
17.	Washington	18.7	7.2
18.	Oregon	18.8	14.1
19.	New York	19.2	16.5
20.	California	21.4	19.8
21.	Pennsylvania	21.9	21.2
22.	New Jersey	23.0	24.6
23.	Colorado	23.0	13.0
24.	Minnesota	24.7	9.2
25.	Florida	25.3	30.9
26.	North Dakota	25.6	3.9
26.	Virginia	25.6	29.5
28.	Missouri	28.8	27.3
29.	Maryland	28.9	31.0
30.	Ohio	29.5	19.3
31.	Indiana	32.0	23.7
32.	Kentucky	33.4	26.4
33.	South Dakota	34.9	3.9
34.	Delaware	39.3	42.4
35.	Kansas	40.4	16.3
36.	Tennessee	41.1	34.5
37.	Iowa	41.7	23.8
38.	Illinois	42.7	21.4
39.	Nebraska	42.9	18.0
40.	**North Carolina**	**43.5**	**33.5**
41.	Oklahoma	51.0	.....
42.	Arkansas	51.3	30.9
43.	Texas	53.3	37.6
44.	Louisiana	57.1	35.2
45.	Alabama	57.9	46.8
46.	Mississippi	60.1	43.8
47.	South Carolina	64.5	50.3
48.	Georgia	66.6	44.9


NORTH CAROLINA
ALLEGHANY
WATAUGA
WILKES
YADKIN
AVERY
MITCHELL
YANCEY
CALDWELL
BURKE
CATAWBA
LINCOLN
GASTON
MADISON
BUNCOMBE
MCDOWELL
RUTHERFORD
POLK
HENDERSON
TRANSYLVANIA
JACKSON
SWAIN
MACON
CHEROKEE
RANDOLPH
HYDE
BRUNSWICK
FARM TENANCY INCREASES 1910 to 1920
Chart shows increases and decreases in the number of farm tenants for the 10 year period.
Total increase 10,172, or 9.5 percent.
Tenants decreased in no. from 46.4 % to 15 %
Tenants decreased in no. from 15 % to 0 %
Tenants increased in no. from 1 % to 20 %
Tenants increased in no from 20 % to 94 %



Farm Tenancy In N.C.-1920.

State Average - 43.5 Percent.

White Rate 32.8 - Percent of Whites.

Negro Rate 70.1 - Percent of Negroes.

THE LANDLESS FARMER IN NORTH CAROLINA

A. M. MOSER, Buncombe County

Facts in 1920

Every census period in North Carolina shows not only a greater number of tenants, but also a larger per cent of all farms cultivated by tenants. The 1920 census shows that today in our state 43.5 per cent or nearly half of our farms are cultivated by tenants. In 1910 we had 107,287 farms or 42.3 per cent cultivated by tenants. In 1920 we had 16,038 more farms in the state than in 1910, but had 10,172 more farms operated by tenants and only 6,056 more farms operated by farm owners. In other words we had 9.5 per cent more tenants than ten years ago and only 4.2 per cent more farm owners. This ten-year gain in tenancy, however, is only in conformity with the drift into tenancy that the state has been showing since the Civil war. These tenants make up what have been termed the "sojourners, strangers, and pilgrims" in the laud, because on an average 52 per cent, or 300,000 of them, move every year. During a ten-year period it has been estimated that every tenant farmer upon an average moved five times. They are continually on the move, either from choice or necessity. In all, these tenant farmers and their families number six hundred thousand. And in North Carolina as in the rest of the South the problem is not a negro problem, but a white man's problem.

Origin of Farm Tenancy, and Its Steady Increase in Cotton and Tobacco Areas

This brings us to the question of the origin of tenaucy. Before the Civil war we were largely a self-sustaining people. The war was disastrous to the South, leaving us prostrate, economically, socially and otherwise. By Lincoln's proclamation 5,000,000 negro slaves were set free. One million confederate soldiers returned from the war, finding their homes burned, their farms in ruin and no money or credit. Cotton went to sixty cents a pound, and the former slaves refused to work, because the carpet-baggers did every thing in their power to prejudice the negroes against their former masters.

The negroes were intoxicated with their freedom, and refused to work even for good wages. Something had to be done, so the crop-lien law was enacted. Cotton dropped from 42 to 11 cents in one year, leaving the southern people in debt. It meant that the farmer could now go to the supply merchant and mortgage his next year's crop in return for feed and supplies. This system re-inslaved the uegroes and made practically a slave of the landless white man. Many land owners, as a result of this law were forced to sell their land and become tenants. Since that time we have had tenancy aud it has increased as the decades have come and gone.

The farm tenants of North Carolina are to be found mainly in the coastal plains counties, and in those counties of the Piedmont belt on the

north that cultivate tobacco, and on the south that cultivate cotton. Tenancy is found in this state wherever cotton and tobacco are cultivated, and not to any large extent in any county that does not produce one or the other of these crops.

In the coastal plains counties, the areas of vast cotton and tobacco production are increasing in tenancy at an alarming rate. This is the big agricultural area of the state, the area that leads the entire world in tobacco production and that produces about one-twelfth of all the cotton grown in the nation.

Cotton and tobacco are ideal tenant crops, because they can be produced by unskilled labor. Cottou and tobacco are usually ready-cash crops and can be sold as soon as they are produced. Credit can be secured to run the farmer even before the crops are plauted because of the crop-lien system. Both crops are practically non-perishable and can be held by the landlord until the market suits. Both crops are easily transported, cannot be eaten by man or beast, they are hand-made crops, producing large per acre yield, and are thoroughly protected by law, making them admirable tenant crops in every way. The coastal plaius counties lead in cotton and tobacco production and these same counties lead in tenancy.

Scotland county, the leading cotton county of the state for its size, has four-fifths of its farmers tenants, or four out of every five farms in the county cultivated by tenauts. Edgecombe county with 79.4 per cent and Greene with 78.2 per cent are close competitors. If they keep up tneir present rate of increase both will be up with or ahead of Scotland county by the next census.

Four-fifths of all the tenants are to be found in the cotton and tobacco counties.

Tenancy is considerably lower in the mountain counties, which never even approach the state average of 43.5 per cent. Of the 42 counties above the state average in tenancy all but nine are located in the eastern half of the state, and these nine are four tobacco counties along the Virginia border, and five cotton counties along the South Carolina border. All counties between and west of these nine are counties where farm ownership is the rule and where each decade finds a larger per cent of farms cultivated by owners and tenancy decreasing. The mountain and hill counties that produce food and feed crops have never been and probably never will be tenant counties. The Tidewater counties which have no cash crops rank high in ownership and are not increasing in tenancy except where cotton and tobacco are being raised. We see, therefore, that in proportion as a county produces cottou or tobacco, just in proportion is she a tenant area.

Economic, Social, and Civic Consequences

No farm tenant population has ever been able to accumulate a very large per capita wealth. This is especially true of cotton and tobacco tenant farmers. It is true that they produce wealth in enormous quanti-

ties, but the great bulk of it slips through their fingers for various causes, the main ones being their inability to see the advantage of live-at-home farming, or their inability to practice it because of our present farm system.

Aside from the economic consequences we have the social and civic consequences. More than 300,000 of our farm tenants move every year. They are as strangers, sojourners, and pilgrims always on the move and always discontented. We cannot blame them, however, for they are always seeking to better their condition. This can mean nothing else but disaster to schools, school attendance, school consolidation, church membership, attendance and support. It means a great impediment to the development of good roads and has a bad effect on sanitation, law and order, community organization and enterprise, and the development of a real democracy. With the present situation there is no chance to organize coöperative marketing associations. It is impossible for a landless, homeless, wandering tenant population to work together in a coöperative organization. Coöperation is founded on land and home ownership, and a farm civilization rooted in tenancy cannot succeed, because a coöperative enterprise to be a success must have a stable, thrifty, contented, home-loving and home-owning membership.

The reason that North Carolina ranks high in illiteracy is because of the abundance of farm tenancy. It has become a proverb that tenancy and illiteracy go hand in hand. As Dr. Branson says, they are twin-born social menaces, twins at birth and boon companions throughout life. One cannot be cured without curing the other. Tenancy breeds illiteracy and illiteracy breeds tenancy.

The effect on the church is no less detrimental. The church may consider the problem as a church problem, because a very small per cent of the farm tenants ever join a church, and a very small per cent attend churches. They are not in the community long enough to form church affiliations. Tenancy and non-church membership also go hand in hand. For instance, in twenty-one of our cotton and tobacco counties are massed more than a fourth of all the non-church members of the entire state, along with illiteracy. In eight of these counties more than half the population are outside the church. A good example is Edgecombe county, which ranks one hundredth in church membership and 99th in farm ownership. The church, therefore, to exist and prosper must assist in destroying these two social evils, tenancy and illiteracy.

Thus I have presented the facts of the landless farmer in North Carolina in 1920, the origin of farm tenancy, its steady increase in cotton and tobacco areas, and its economic, social, and civic consequences.

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Nov. 14, 1921.

THE HOMELESS MULTITUDES IN URBAN AREAS

J. G. GULLICK, Belmont, N. C.

Along with farm tenancy, which was discussed in the last club report, an economic and social problem of increasing importance today is that of home tenancy in city areas. Home tenancy has to a great extent the same effect upon urban communities that farm tenancy has on rural communities, and the problem of the homeless multitudes in urban areas is one of great significance not only from the economic but from the social and civic standpoint.

It is evident from the meager amount of material on the subject of city tenancy at hand that little attention has been given heretofore to this problem. But the facts and circumstances themselves have forced the problem to the front. The great increase in the number of homeless renters in urban communities, as shown by the census reports, has caused some to wonder with alarm where we are arriving.

And the facts in the case justify some alarm. At the present time 54.4 per cent of all the people in the United States live in rented homes and only 28.2 per cent of homes are owned free from encumbrance. This is to say that 71.8 per cent of all the homes in this country are either rented or mortgaged or otherwise encumbered. The percentage of tenancy in cities is much larger. The latest statistics for city homes alone, those of the 1920 census, have not yet become available, but judging from the visible rate of increase in home tenancy in many industrial centers it is estimated that right around 66 per cent of all the homes in urban areas are rented.

This multitude of homeless city dwellers is concentrated largely in the manufacturing and industrial areas of New England and the Southern and Middle Atlantic states, with the South Central and Pacific Coast states ranking next. In 1910 South Carolina, it is surprising to say, had 76.5 per cent of all homes, exclusive of farm homes, rented, which was the highest percentage of any state in the Union. This outstrips the New England states with their crowded industrial population by several percents. The per cent of town and city homes owned free from encumbrance in South Carolina was as low as 18.8. At this point it should be borne in mind that the figures we are using represent all the homes, exclusive of farm homes, and therefore include a few homes not in towns or cities, such as hunters' homes, lumbermen's homes, etc. These figures are used because the census does not give the purely urban figures on tenancy by states. However the homes outside of towns included in these figures are so few that they make no appreciable difference, if any at all, in the percentages.

The state lowest in home tenancy was North Dakota, which had a percentage of 41.9 and a per cent of unencumbered ownership as high as 44.1. New York ranked near the top in urban tenancy, having a percentage of 74.5. In this state only 13.8 per cent of all the homes exclu-

sive of farm homes were owned free from encumbrance. In 1920 New York state ranked second from the top in home tenancy, (both urban and rural), being surpassed only by the District of Columbia with a percentage of 69.7, which is four-tenths of one per cent higher than New York; and the District of Columbia cannot be really classed as a state in these calculations. Rhode Island leads the New England states with a tenancy ratio of 73.9 per cent, Massachusetts being a close second with 69.7 per cent.

While all the statistics on urban tenancy of the 1920 census are not yet available, the figures and percentages for all the cities of 100,000 or above have been announced. These show a very high ratio of home tenancy in many of our chief cities. The proportion which rented homes represented of the entire number of homes is the largest in New York, in which city the per cent of people who are homeless was 87.3—several percents higher than that of any other city. In one borough of New York, the Manhattan, which is practically a tenement district so far as homes are concerned, the percentage of tenancy was 97.9, and only 0.8 per cent of the people owned the roofs over their heads free from encumbrance. The city making the best showing or having the lowest percentage of tenancy was Toledo, Ohio, with a ratio of 50.6 per cent.

The statistics for North Carolina show that this state is neither at the top nor the bottom in urban tenancy. We have not received the Census Bureau's figures of 1920 for city homes separated from farm homes, but we do have the 1920 tenancy figures for all homes, and the 1910 and previous census figures for tenancy in urban homes, or rather all homes exclusive of farm homes. The ratio of North Carolina for all homes in 1920 was 52.6. This is just below the average for the United States and a decrease of two-fifths of one per cent from the percentage of the 1910 census. If the farm homes were subtracted from the number on which these figures are based, the percentage of home tenancy would of course be much higher. The percentage of all homes except farm homes, which is almost equivalent to urban homes, in 1910 was 66.2. The total number of rented homes, excepting farm homes, in this state in that year was 123,183. The percentage of homes occupied by white people that were rented in that year was 62.2, and the percentage of tenancy among the colored people was 72.6. So we see that home tenancy is not confined to any one race.

The percentage of tenancy in the cities of 10,000 or over in North Carolina in 1910 were as follows: Asheville, 66; Charlotte, 66; Durham, 71; Greensboro, 62; Raleigh, 70; Wilmington, 66; Winston, 72. Thus we see that industrial cities like Winston-Salem and Durham always have a larger percentage of home renters than commercial and distributing centers like Charlotte or tourist cities like Asheville. The 1920 census will probably show Gastonia as having a still larger percentage of tenancy than Winston-Salem, the leader in the state in 1910.

But what has been the trend of movement in home tenancy during the past few decades? From 1890 to 1910 there was a slight decrease in

the ratio of home tenancy in the United States. But this decrease has been very slight. During this 20-year period there was a decrease in rented urban homes of 1.5 per cent. In North Carolina there was a decrease during this period from 74.2 per cent to 66.2, a fall of 8 per cent. However the ratio of tenancy for all homes has been on the increase. From 1900 to 1920 the percentage of renters increased from 53.9 to 54.4. This is accounted for by the fact that the increase in tenancy of farm homes has been very large, while the decrease in other homes has been small enough to be negligible. While all the 1920 figures for homes other than farm homes have not yet been announced, we do have the figures for cities of 100,000 or more inhabitants. Among the 68 cities of this class 20 increased in tenancy between 1910 and 1920, 45 decreased and 3 remained unchanged. The highest increase in home ownership was made by Philadelphia, which gained 12.9 per cent. The highest increase in tenancy was that of Los Angeles, which amounted to exactly ten per cent. The increase in home ownership in most cases was very small.

From the foregoing figures we see that home ownership in urban areas has been slightly on the increase. Of course the census statistics for the whole country may show a slight decrease in home ownership during the last census period, but there is reason to believe that they will reveal a small, but very small, increase. One reason for the small increase is the activities of the building and loan associations and other institutions that aid in home ownership in a similar way.

But the slight increase in home ownership does not mean that the problem is being solved. For, in the first place the increase is negligible, being such a small percentage, and in the second place tenants are increasing numerically so fast that we are making little improvement.

Another factor must also be considered. While there has been in some cities a small decrease in the per cent of rented homes, this does not indicate any stability, for more and more town and city homes are apparently becoming mortgaged. During the decade between 1910 and 1920 the per cent of mortgaged or other encumbered homes increased in every United States city of 100,000 or more population except four. These were: Kansas City, Missouri; Los Angeles, California; Scranton, Pennsylvania; and Spokane, Washington.

In the United States in 1920 there was a total of 24,351,676 homes, including farm homes, which is an increase of 8,168,901 during the last 20 years. When we consider what the 54.4 per cent tenancy ratio amounts to, it is easy to see why the numerical increase is an important consideration. This together with the great increase in encumbered homes is an eloquent refutation of the statement that the home tenancy problem is diminishing into insignificance.

It might be interesting to note here the homeless numbers in our own state. These figures are for both town and country areas. In this case it is necessary to use the 1910 figures. In this year the homeless families numbered 227,249, of which 131,272 were white and 95,967 colored.

The Fatal Law.

The cruel penalty of city civilization seems to be the law of home ownership. It seems that the more populous and prosperous a community becomes the fewer are the people that live in homes of their own, and the larger the multitude of tenants and renters. It is a strange and anomalous thing that this should be the case in a prosperous, democratic civilization. But statistics indicate that it is a fact that the more wealthy and populous a city becomes the larger the ratio of renters.

Where city civilization is the most highly developed in our own state the percentages of home ownership are low. In Asheville, Charlotte, and Wilmington two-thirds of the people live in rented dwellings. In Raleigh the latest figures are 70 per cent, in Durham 71 per cent, and in Winston 72 per cent. Greensboro leads the seven largest cities, and yet 62 per cent of her people live in houses that they do not own.

In the great cities of the North the percentages of homelessness run into almost unbelievable figures. For example: in Boston, Fall River, Jersey City and Cambridge over 80 people in the hundred are tenants. In the Manhattan section of New York 97.9 per cent of the homes are rented, and these dwellings are almost entirely slum tenements. In New York City even the rich are becoming renters because they find it much cheaper to rent an apartment than to maintain a home. Last year about $20,000,000 was spent in the construction of dwellings in New York City, but only three homes were built. As Dr. Branson says: "New York is a civilization of cliff dwellers—genuinely so; but unlike the Aztecs the New Yorkers do not dwell under their own roof-trees." It is strange that such should be the case in such a wealthy community and if increases in wealth and prosperity mean that more and more people are reduced to tenancy, it is high time that we get to the bottom of the matter and find a solution.

Social and Economic Effects

Now that we have seen the extent of tenancy, let us consider other phases of the problem. If the existence of great numbers of homeless people constitutes a problem, why is it a problem? Is it a problem from the economic standpoint? To a large extent and in most cases it is. Is it is a problem from a social and civic standpoint? It most certainly is.

But leaving out all economic considerations it is a problem because of the difference between the quality of citizenship of a tenant population and that of a home-owning population. It is because of the steadying, uplifting influence of home ownership. It is because home ownership brings a change in attitude toward such institutions as schools, churches, community organizations and undertakings, and even government itself. And finally it is because the large cities containing great multitudes, who own neither the homes they live in nor the tools they work with, have always been hotbeds of destructive socialism, for here revolutionists find large and responsive audiences.

It is easy to see why it is a problem when we consider the effect that the lack of home ownership has upon one's personality and character and how it develops irresponsibility and lack of self-respect. It seems to be an almost universal fact that tenancy stands in the way of self-respect and one's aspirations to amount to anything in the world. It seems to have the effect of stifling and suppressing any impulses to enter into any constructive community work, because homeless people, on account of the lack of assurance of permanent residence and of the fact that they own no part of the community, feel that it is the other people's community and that they are in no way responsible for its welfare. It deprives them of that feeling of pride and responsibility which home ownership gives, and the steadying influence of owning a home or piece of ground is unknown to them.

On the other hand, as a home-owner a man is a better citizen because home ownership gives him an individuality which the tenant never attains. He is recognized in his community as a man who has at stake a home—man's most valuable earthly possession. The individuality of the home-owner gives a certain amount of self-respect and desire to comport himself well that a tenant is deprived of in the very nature of the case.

It has been said of farm tenants that they are sojourners, strangers, pilgrims in the land. This seems to be just as true of home tenants in many of our large cities. They are forever on the move from one place to another, never stopping long enough to become identified with any locality.

Then, too, consider the effect of homelessness upon social and anti-social attitudes, upon local law and order, upon the sense of civic responsibility, upon local and national government, upon schools and illiteracy, and upon church work and welfare. It is not difficult to see why homeless creatures, owning no immovable property and unidentified with any community, do not participate in community undertakings and support community activities, but instead provide a ready field for social welfare workers or social mischief makers. In some cases they seem to feel as if they were being governed by laws made for the regulation of their conduct but in the making of which they had no part. They feel that they are sending their children to somebody else's schools and having to do so without being questioned as to their desire to do so or being asked for their consent. But on the other hand when people own property, a material part of the community, and pay taxes on it for the support of schools, then they feel that they are sending their children to their schools and are interested in them from the point of view of ownership. And what has been said of their interest in schools can also be said to a certain extent of their interest in churches.

There seems to be nothing to take the place of home-owning to tie a man's heart to his community or state. No matter if a man does have some community loyalty without home ownership, in 99 cases out of 100 he would have more of it if he owned his own home. Let a man have a

home and family in any community or state and it is natural that he is going to have a much more vital interest in that community or state than if he did not own a foot of soil or a house in it.

Another thing to be considered is the integrity of the home. The family is the unit of American life and an institution that is the foundation of our civilization. In our larger cities where a few rented rooms are a home and where a home is merely a sleeping place, family disintegration can and does take place. Each member of the family working at a different place, each member taking his or her lunch or perhaps all of the meals at a different place, and each spending his spare time in a different place, sometimes the members of the family have hardly more than a mere acquaintance with the rest of the family and real family life is destroyed. Tenancy itself may not be the cause of all of this, but these are conditions that go along with tenancy in our larger cities, and the unhome-like and unattractive surroundings and atmosphere of tenant city homes are responsible for a large part of it.

The problem might well be considered from a national standpoint also. Approximately two-thirds of our population are now town and city dwellers, and no state or country can hope for stability and safety, peace and prosperity, when a swelling majority of its people own little or nothing but household goods and personal effects. As Dr. Branson has pointed out, how much chance is there for a safe democracy in any state or nation that is populated by a homeless people, who in the very nature of things move from place to place under the urge of necessity and the lure of opportunity, who lack identity with the community in which they live, who feel little responsibility for law and order, who lack a proprietary interest in schools and churches and other agencies for progress, prosperity, and well-being? It is a condition that easily develops into discontent and restlessness. Civilization is rooted and grounded in home-owning, home-loving, and home-defending instincts.

It is practically impossible to socialize, civilize, or Christianize a landless people, and Mexico perfectly illustrates this fundamental truth. Her people are illiterate, irresponsible and dangerous because the masses are homeless and landless.

As indicated in the foregoing, the irresponsible, instable citizenship in the homeless multitudes found in sections of our larger cities constitues a regular hotbed for every sort of irrational social impulse. This is one thing which home ownership, for reasons already mentioned, neutralizes. Home owners are enemies of anarchy and bolshevism. There is no danger of the home owners not standing unafraid and vigorous in their opposition to radical propaganda, and if the perpetuation of our social institutions rests upon a population of home owners all schemes of communism and other such doctrines will surely come to grief. For a man with a house and a plot of ground to call his own is not interested in plans to dynamite the existing order. It has been said that a man's house is his castle. It is also true that a home is one of civilization's strongest fortifications against anarchy.

The tenancy of city homes is also an evil from the economic standpoint. This is especially true in the larger cities, for here the competition is between the renters who are scrambling for homes rather than between landlords, which is quite a contrast with conditions in the mill communities of some of our southern cities where houses are rented at from 12½ cents per week up, including water and lights. In the great cities the tenants are packed in large, high buildings almost like so many articles of merchandise. In addition to undesirable living conditions, they are at the mercy of their landlords and are compelled to pay whatever is asked in the way of rent or be turned out into the streets. And everybody knows of the exorbitant rents charged in many of the large cities, especially New York where Columbia University had to double the salaries of its law faculty in order to enable them to meet a two-years' increase in rents. From the economic standpoint it is also a problem because when a person lives in a house or rooms not his own there is no incentive to improve or better his surroundings, and he is apt to waste money and time that would be devoted to this if he owned his home.

In the foregoing it has been attempted to present briefly the extent of tenancy, the proportions which our homeless multitudes have reached in our cities, and some of the problems arising from such a condition. We have seen why home tenancy is bad for the renter, both economically and socially, for the community and for the nation; and I now leave it with the other students of tenancy to tell us in future papers this year what is the remedy for this problem.

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Nov. 28, 1921.

PERCENTAGE OF HOME TENANCY IN CITIES OF 100,000 OR MORE POPULATION

J. G. GULLICK, Belmont, N. C., Gaston County.

Rural Social Science Dept., U. N. C., 1921.

(Based on the 1920 Census)

Rank	City	Pct.	Rank	City	Pct.
1	New York City	87.3	34	Los Angeles, Cal.	65.3
2	Cambridge, Mass.	82.4	36	Cleveland, Ohio	64.9
3	Boston	81.5	37	Scranton, Pa.	64.5
4	Jersey City, N. J.	80.3	37	Milwaukee, Wis.	64.5
4	Fall River, Mass.	80.3	39	Columbia, Ohio	63.4
6	Newark, N. J.	79.8	40	Dallas, Texas	63.1
7	Hartford, Conn.	79.2	41	San Antonio, Texas	62.2
8	New Orleans, La.	76.9	42	Syracuse, N. Y.	62.1
9	Norfolk, Va.	76.8	43	Fort Worth, Tex.	61.9
10	Providence, R. I.	76.5	43	Trenton, N. J.	61.9
10	Yonkers, N. Y.	76.5	45	Denver, Colo.	61.7
12	St. Louis, Mo.	76.2	45	Detroit, Mich.	61.7
13	Bridgeport, Conn.	75.4	45	Wilmington, Del.	61.7
14	Atlanta, Ga.	75.3	48	Buffalo, N. Y.	61.4
15	Richmond, Va.	74.1	49	Philadelphia, Pa.	60.5
16	Lowell, Mass.	73.9	50	Camden, N. J.	59.5
17	Chicago	73.0	51	Minneapolis, Minn.	59.1
17	New Haven, Conn.	73.0	52	Dayton, Ohio	58.1
19	Paterson, N. J.	72.6	53	Oakland, Cal.	58.0
19	San Francisco, Cal.	72.6	54	Rochester, N. Y.	57.5
21	Worcester, Mass.	72.3	55	Salt Lake City, Utah	55.7
22	Springfield, Mass.	72.1	56	Portland, Oregon	55.4
23	Birmingham, Ala.	71.9	56	Spokane, Wash.	55.4
24	Pittsburgh, Pa.	71.7	58	Akron, Ohio	55.3
25	New Bedford, Mass.	71.4	59	St. Paul, Minn.	53.9
26	Albany, N. Y.	71.3	60	Seattle, Wash.	53.7
26	Cincinnati, Ohio	71.3	60	Baltimore, Md.	53.7
28	Memphis, Tenn.	71.1	62	Reading, Pa.	53.4
29	Louisville, Ky.	70.2	63	Kansas City, Kan.	52.4
30	Washington, D. C.	69.7	64	Youngstown, Ohio	52.2
31	Nashville, Tenn.	68.1	65	Omaha, Nebraska	51.6
32	Houston, Texas	65.8	66	Toledo, Ohio	50.6
33	Indianapolis, Ind.	65.5	67	Grand Rapids, Mich.	49.8
34	Kansas City, Mo.	65.3	68	Des Moines, Iowa	48.9

HOME TENANCY IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1920

J. G. GULLICK, Belmont, N. C.

Covering both Town and Country Homes.

Rural Social Science Department, U. N. C., 1921.

Ratio of home tenancy in U. S. 54.4 per cent.

(Based on the 1920 Census)

Rank	State	Pct. Rented Dwellings	Rank	State	Pct. Rented Dwellings
1	North Dakota	37.4	26	Tennessee	52.3
2	Wisconsin	36.4	27	Nevada	52.4
3	South Dakota	38.5	28	North Carolina	52.6
4	Idaho	39.1	29	West Virginia	53.2
5	Minnesota	39.3	30	Oklahoma	54.5
6	Montana	39.5	31	Pennsylvania	54.8
7	Utah	40.0	32	Arkansas	54.9
8	Maine	40.4	33	Delaware	55.3
9	New Mexico	40.6	34	Illinois	56.2
10	Michigan	41.1	35	California	56.3
11	Iowa	41.9	36	Texas	57.2
12	Vermont	42.5	37	Arizona	57.2
13	Nebraska	42.6	38	Florida	57.5
14	Kansas	43.1	39	New Jersey	61.7
15	Indiana	45.2	40	Connecticut	62.4
15	Oregon	45.2	41	Alabama	65.0
17	Washington	45.3	42	Massachusetts	65.2
18	Wyoming	48.1	43	Mississippi	66.0
19	Colorado	48.4	44	Louisiana	66.3
19	Ohio	48.4	45	South Carolina	67.8
19	Kentucky	48.4	46	Rhode Island	68.9
22	Virginia	48 9	47	Georgia	69.1
23	Maryland	50.1	48	New York	69.3
24	New Hampshire	50.2	49	District of Columbia	69.7
25	Missouri	50.5			

INCREASE AND DECREASE IN HOME TENANCY IN U. S. IN 1910-20

J. G. Gullick, Belmont, N. C.

Rural Social Science Department, U. N. C., 1921.

Table showing per cent of increase or decrease in home tenancy, both farm and city, in the United States between 1910 and 1920.

In the United States as a whole there was an increase of 0.2 per cent in home tenancy. Twenty-eight states increased in home tenancy, nineteen states and the District of Columbia decreased, and in one state, Mississippi, there was no change.

Rank	State	P. C. Incr. Ten.
1	New Mexico	10.9
2	North Dakota	9.8
3	Colorado	6.9
4	Idaho	6.4
4	South Dakota	6.4
6	Arizona	6.1
7	Nevada	5.7
8	Arizona	4.9
9	Utah	4.6
10	Maine	2.7
10	Michigan	2.7
12	Washington	2.4
12	Wyoming	2.4
12	West Virginia	2.4
15	Texas	2.3
16	Kansas	2.2
17	Nebraska	1.6
18	Missouri	1.4
19	Arkansas	1.3
20	New Hampshire	1.2
20	Florida	1.2
22	Minnesota	1.0
23	Vermont	0.9
24	Wisconsin	0.8
25	Iowa	0.3
26	New York	0.2
26	Illinois	0.2
28	Virginia	0.1
29	Mississippi	0.0
	DECREASE	P.C. DEC.
30	Alabama	0.1
30	Oklahoma	0.1
30	Indiana	0.1
33	Kentucky	0.2
34	Colorado	0.3
35	North Carolina	0.4
35	Ohio	0.4
35	Connecticut	0.4
38	Georgia	0.5
39	Tennessee	1.0
40	Montana	1.2
41	South Carolina	1.6
42	Louisiana	1.7
42	Massachusetts	1.7
44	Rhode Island	2.6
45	New Jersey	3.3
46	Pennsylvania	3.7
47	Delaware	4.1
48	District of Columbia	5.1
49	Maryland	6.0

HOME OWNERSHIP IN INDUSTRIAL COMMUNITIES

S. O. BONDURANT, Rockingham County

Home ownership in industrial communities is here preseuted under four heads as follows:

First. The Extent of home-ownership in such communities.

Second. The Old Attitude of industrial corporations toward home-ownership, the consequences of this attitude, and indications of a new attitude.

Third. The New Attitude, the reasons for it, aud the consequences of it.

Fourth. Coustructive suggestions.

I

There is in existence at present very little exact information concerning the extent of home-ownership in iudustrial communities. However, the most reliable information available indicates that it extends (1) to less than one-third of the population of such communities in the country at large, (2) to less than one-fourth in the great industrial area east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio, (3) to less than one-fifth in the North Atlantic and New England states, and (4) to less than one-tenth in the unincorporated mill communities of the South. The rule is for the corporations to own the mill dwellings and to let them at miuimum reutals to their employees.

An average taken from the 1910 census report on the seven largest cities in North Carolina indicates that just a little less than one-third of the dwellings are occupied by owners aud that right around four-fifths of these homes are encumbered by mortgage debt. These figures are given (1) because modern cities are essentially industrial communities, and (2) because the conditions of life in such communities tend more and more to decreasing home-ownership. In the state-at-large four-fifths of the owned homes are free of debt; but in our large cities four-fifths of the home-owners are debt-ridden. It is becoming increasingly impossible for a man to live in a home of his own in industrial-urban centers everywhere.

Thus we see, whatever the exact ratio, that home-owners are relatively few iu industrial communities. This is due partly to the general system under which industrial ceuters have developed; it is due principally, however, to the attitude of industrial corporations toward home-ownership by employees, and so I shall discuss briefly the important factors underlying the reasons for such an attitude.

II

First of all, what is this attitude? Briefly, it is an attitude antagonistic to home ownership. Industrial corporations have felt that they, and not the employees, should own the mill village dwellings, that this policy

is essential to community morals, law and order, and in general to company regulation and control of employees, that it prevents strikes, or that strikes when they occur can be ended by evicting the strikers and bundling them off the company preserves. This it seems to me has been proven to be poor reasoning. Factory ownership of homes has never yet prevented a strike, so far as we know, and the eviction of strikers from company dwellings is one of the surest ways of provoking violence and bloodshed in strike situations.

On the other hand it is a well-attested fact that when a wage-hand owns property he is not easily subject to the influence of labor union organizers. It is the propertyless person who is most apt to join radical organizations. These reasons for corporation ownership of village dwellings have proven without foundation. The only sufficient reason for such a policy lies in the swift necessity of newly organized concerns for nearby dwellings that cannot otherwise be provided in adequate number.

Moreover, this attitude has been maintained notwithstanding the almost universal fact that company houses as a rule yield no dividends in rents. They are a financial handicap, they directly decrease the earning power of the plant, while indirectly they make such earning power possible. Sometimes no rent at all is charged in southeru mill villages. And rents when paid range from twelve and one-half cents to a dollar a week per person. Commonly water and electric lights are free or merely nominal charges are made.

It is reasonable to assume that the corporations are not ignorant of the finaucial burden they carry in their mill villages, but as yet they have not in any general way considered any change in a policy that began with the factory system itself. In the early days of the factory system there arose a demand for workmen in large numbers grouped in industrial communities. Almost all the workers available were propertyless people, who lacked the home-owning virtues, and even the desire to own their homes. Now, if we remember that the men who pioneered the factory system were business men, and that solvency in a business enterprise was a much more important word with them than social benefactions, then we readily see why they chose to own the factory dwellings rather than to build homes to sell to the workers. The policy in other words arose in what seemed to be a business necessity.

III

But industrial communities are no longer new, and nearly two centuries of experience have disclosed some fundamental defects in original policies concerning home-ownership by wage-earners. Within the last forty years a goodly number of industrial corporations are developing a new attitude toward home-ownership. A fairly large number of corporations are now considering plans for making home-owners out of their employees. Henry Ford has a commission whose duty it is to promote home-ownership among the employees of his factories and assembling

plants. The Standard Oil Company is rapidly developing home-ownership plans for their workmen. The R. J. Reynolds Company is also experimenting in this direction.

But there are two industrial communities in which it is no longer an experiment. Instead, it is a tried-out and successful policy. In Himlerville, Kentucky, this is true. The following quotation is taken from G. C. Briggs of the Chicago Tribune. He says: "Right in the heart of the Tug River coal district, and across the winding yellow stream from Mingo County—"Bloody Mingo" as it is called, where industrial war wages interminably, and men shoot with the deadly precision of the squirrel hunter—there is a mining company that is growing, serenely, calmly immune from the fire of hate that inflames the surrounding hills, and impervious to the struggle of labor unionists to prevent disorganization, or to the strategic moves of organized mine owners to crush unionism and independent operators as well. This community which is like a peaceful oasis in a region of turmoil revolves about a cooperative mine in Kentucky, opposite Kermit. Its miners are stockholders. As part owners of the company, they are not eligible for membership in the union Mine Workers. Therefore they are not harassed by the union to join in the fight against the operators."

There has never been a strike in Himlerville. This company believes, and its belief is based on fact, not on theory, that in order to make good citizens of working men, the working men must not only have a financial interest and a sense of possession in the thing which they help to produce, but also that they must have clean and attractive homes of their own to live in—something to make life seem worth while when the eight-hour shift in the mine is done.

Himler, the founder of Himlerville, walking with Mr. Briggs through the village, remarked to him: "Some of the houses were built by the miners themselves. That one upon the hill (he pointed to an artistic cottage perched upon a ledge) was put up by one of our miners, Jan Fakete. He built it all himself, after working hours, and when it was finished with the fancy balcony overlooking the valley and with electric lights, and a gas stove and a bath tub—everything just like a modern house—he sent for his wife and five children back in Hungary. Up to the time he bought a lot and started building he planned to go back to them. Now, instead of being a roving miner with a craving to go back to Hungary, he is settled down and happy to belong to a country that made that thing possible."

Another impressive instance of the consequences of home-ownership in a mill village is given in the University News Letter, Vol. II, No. 30. The News Letter says in part, "In Illinois, some sixteen miles east of St. Louis is the mill village of LeClaire. The population numbers 670. Every family in it with only five exceptions owns its own home. There is no civic organization, no mayor, no policeman, no jail, no bar-room. There is no need and no demand for any of these luxuries of civilization. In thirty years, only two boys born in the village have ever left it, and

one of them has since returned. Only one girl born in the village has ever moved out of it. It is a stable mill population. There is no more beautiful village in America, and it is a mill village. The lake, the boat pavilion, the amusement park, the kindergarten, the public school and the common hall are the property of the mill hands, not the mill-owners. They are all maintained in order by a tax paid out of the mill wages according to the amount earned by each operative. There is no hobo help problem. The mill authorities have sold their workmen lots, built their houses for them, and recovered the principal and interest in monthly payments running throughout fifteen or twenty years as the operative may choose. No sturdier, manlier, finer body of mill people can be found on earth today than the home-owning mill hands of LeClaire." No strike or lockout has ever occurred in LeClaire, and moreover twice during the last thirty years, the operatives have voted wage reductions upon themselves.

And so we see a new attitude developing concerning the ownership of homes in industrial communities. And can we wonder why this is true? It is because the corporations are beginning to realize that home-ownership by their employees means the possession of three of the greatest assets any community, especially an industrial community, can possess.

The first and I believe the most important effect of home-ownership by employees, is the creation of a stable citizenship. The labor turnover is one of the hard problems of modern industrial communities. If, then, this problem can be solved through home-ownership, is it to be wondered at that industrial centers are welcoming it? The average cost of breaking in new employees in manufacturing plants ranges from fifty to ninety-five dollars per new worker. Is it not obvious, then, from a financial point of view, that stable citizenship pays in a mill village?

In regard to strikes, I may say that in the nine southern states east of the Mississippi the average of strikes during the war was only 152 per year against 728 west of the Mississippi and 2,779 in the North and East, which goes to prove that strikes occur in largest numbers under city conditions. Thus, it might be argued, since in this state we have a large number of small mills and factories rather than a small number of large establishments, that we have no strike problems. On the other hand it is sufficient to note that our little mill villages are fast growing into large towns and cities. And no observer or mill owner with prudential forethought would consider the problem of strikes as unimportant in this state. For, even if our little villages never grew into cities, they are not even then immune from strikes so long as the employees do not own the roofs they sleep under. But, even if no strikes occur, there are still the problems of labor turnover. In LeClaire, with 670 people, only two boys and one girl have ever left, and one of these returned. Certainly we can find no parallel to this in any corporation mill village in America. In Himlerville, located in an area where strikes are the rule rather than the exception, no strike has ever occurred, and this can be attributed only to the stable citizenship produced by the

ownership of homes by the workers. The instance of Fakete of Himlerville, who before he owned a home, planned to return to Hungary but after he owned his home determined to spend the remainder of his life not merely in America but in the particular community in which he worked, is not demonstrative of an exceptional attitude of the new home-owner. It is rather the common and natural attitude. And so in this way home-ownership stabilizes the citizenship of an industrial community, and thus reduces to a minimum the labor turnover of that community.

In the second place, home-ownership promotes right reasoning. Have you ever noticed the change in a man's attitude toward almost everything, more especially toward questions the solution of which involves the valuing of future pleasures in terms of present sacrifices, when he first becomes the owner of a home? He has a sense of futurity, and so temporary pleasures do not outweigh the more remote but perhaps more permanent and worth while satisfactions of life. He reasons, and here is where he ceases to be swayed by trivial impulses. He no longer contends that it is a proper liberty for a drunkard to inhabit the public places so long as he does harm to no one. He no longer grudgingly pays taxes as a burden but cheerfully as au investment in community progress and prosperity. His reasoning is now less individualistic, for since he is permanently located he is willing to invest in permanent public improvements and enterprises—schools, churches, public health, and the like. In numberless situations, his ownership of a home promotes clear thinking in right directions, and sets him courageously against whatever is harmful to himself, his home, or his community.

And this leads up to the third and last reason for the new attitude regarding home-ownership in mill villages. It promotes conservative citizenship. Propertyless people are prone to act upon sudden impulse. And the person who acts upon impulses is easily drawn into radical, destructive organizations, and to do rash, unwise things upon the spur of the moment. He is not apt to be conservative because he has little to conserve. He is tempted into radicalism, because he has something to gain perhaps and little to lose. The radical element of population is everywhere composed of the landless and homeless. Now, the capitalist is conservative mainly because of his ownership of property. Fundamentally, human nature is the same thing in the propertyless and the property-owning class. That being the case, just as it is natural to expect the capitalist to be conservative, it seems natural to expect also the propertyless person to become conservative when he acquires property. This is true because conservatism is essential to a stable social order, and a stable social order is essential to the acquisition, retention and enjoyment of property. Thus it appears that home-ownership means a stable, robust, self-respecting citizenship—a type of citizenship that is necessary to democratic safety and industrial security alike.

Now what does conservative citizenship mean to industry and industrial communities? It insures in the first place the retention of accumulated property and the use of it for productive purposes with minimum

risks and hazards. Radicalism and not conservatism is a destroyer of property and the property rights upon which western civilization is founded. If property is safe-guarded, it is wise to encourage property ownership by the largest possible number of people. From its very nature conservatism is opposed to whimsical, sudden changes. Conservative communities are contented—sometimes stupidly so, but they are communities that endure, as England, Switzerland, and the Netherlands. And conservatism does not necessarily imply a lack of personal ambition. There is ample opportunity in a conservative, stable social order for the fit to move on up in wages, and position. There is still plenty of room at the top. But in a community seething with discontent and organized for radical revolt, the fit and the unfit fare alike, whether they be capitalists or wage-earners. Peace and prosperity are essentially related and have always been so everywhere.

But there is a more fundamental consequence than this. Conservative citizenship means stable, sober-minded citizenship, and this type of citizenship is impossible among propertyless, restless, hot-headed radicals. Only in a conservative, stable community is it possible to be and to have good neighbors. A rolling stone not only gathers no moss, but in turn it grinds to powder other rolling stones. And so instable families in a community, however few. Not only are they poor neighbors, but they destroy neighborly feeling in the community. The development of proper relationships depends upon such property ownership as identifies a man with the community in which he lives and makes him keenly active in every movement that concerns the welfare and well-being of all.

Only in recent years have industrial corporations begun to consider the value of home ownership by their employees, and the list of such corporations is brief as yet. Only lately have they taken cognizance of its stabilizing effect upon citizenship, and upon right-reason as related to the labor turnover, to strikes and lockouts—to all the conditions of peace and prosperity for both capital and labor.

So far, only a few corporations are assuming a more reasonable attitude toward home-ownership in mill villages. Let it be hoped that in this matter the costly experiences of the past may now be an effective teacher and that the future may profit thereby. The capitalists who build the industries of the state, will do well, in my opinion, to consider the significance of home-ownership, and as rapidly as possible to foster and promote it in their industrial communities.

IV

In conclusion I am venturing to offer certain constructive suggestions, (1) to the owners of mill plants and mill villages already in existence, and (2) to enterprisers who are planning future mill villages in the South. And I do so with a full understanding of the fact that our labor turnover is far less than it is in other sections of the country, that the unionization of labor is less, and strikes and lockouts fewer. Nevertheless, with a labor turnover of 325 per cent in average years in the state-

at-large, with the recent strike troubles in Charlotte, Concord, Cedar Grove and High Point, and finally with the declared purpose of the central authorities to unionize the textile workers of the entire United States, it seems wise for industrial corporations in North Carolina and the South to take a providential, constructive look into the future, just as the Standard Oil Company is doing for its employees in the Bayway Refinery at Elizabeth, N. J., the N. O. Nelson Company, at LeClaire, Ill., the Himler Coal Company in West Virginia and Kentucky, and the R. J. Reynolds Company at Winston-Salem.

1. For the already established mill villages of company-owned houses, a nearby area might be chosen and converted into a residence park property, with streets, sewer mains, water and light facilities, walkways, shade trees and the like laid out with the care devoted by private promoters to Meyer Park in Charlotte or the Druid Hill Park in Atlanta. The building lots in this park could be offered to faithful, thrifty wage-earners, floor bosses, superintendents, managers, and management employees. The company might offer to picked people a choice of residence plans; build the houses they choose and establish these worthy company workers in homes of their own upon an amortization plan extending through 20 to 30 years at the option of the employees; the loans to be rated at six or seven per cent and repaid by the borrowers in stated sums weekly, the final payments dismissing the debts. It is the plan long ago adopted at LeClaire, where all but five families live in homes of their own in a village of seven hundred inhabitants. A neighboring park property is suggested because as a rule no employee cares to own the house he lives in at present in our mill villages. It does not appeal to him because it is more or less like every other dwelling in the village. He would be attracted into a brand new dwelling in a park property. Already certain mills in the state, as for instance at Albemarle, have developed such residence park property, but not, I believe, with any view of transferring the dwellings to company employees. The R. J. Reynolds Company started to develop this idea several years ago, but the plan was obstructed at the time by the well-nigh impossible cost of labor and construction materials. But construction costs are rapidly falling, and it is now becoming possible to carry out this idea.

2. The mill villages of new concerns ought to be provided with such residence park properties and the architects and landscape architects charged in advance with this detail; and the construction plans ought to consider in advance the increasing transfer of company houses to mill employees and the gradual conversion of valuable employees into home owners, permanently identified with mill village life as responsible, robust citizens of democratic communities.

But in every instrument of transfer it will be wise to stipulate that in case of sale of the property so acquired the company shall be a preferred purchaser at the current market value.

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CAUSES OF TENANCY—TOWN AND COUNTRY

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The Facts of Tenancy

There are in the United States today more than fifty-seven million people who do not own the land they cultivate or the houses they live in. They are tenants and renters in farm areas, factory villages, and town and city centers. Yet there are more than a half billion idle acres of productive land within the boundaries of the Nation. In North Carolina there are a few more than one million three hundred and forty thousand homeless, landless people and twenty-two million idle acres, thirteen million of which were once cultivated, but which are now turned out to wilderness growths. Once upon a time the National domain consisted of three billion acres that could be had for farm uses almost for the asking. And yet strange to say, more than half of the entire population of the United States are today landless and homeless.

Two questions in this connection are pertinent. What does such a situation mean? And what is the explanation?

The Causes

It is not my purpose in this short discussion to point out all the evils that menace democratic institutions in a situation of this sort. Perhaps it is sufficient to say in a word that the security and the perpetuity of democracy depend upon stable communities, stable family groups, and stable, responsible citizenship; that the stability of communities, families, and citizens depends fundamentally upon farm and home ownership; that homeless, landless, people tend to be restless, roving, instable, irresponsible citizens. It is therefore obvious that democracy is in peril, when more than half of all the people of the state and the nation live in other people's houses and cultivate other people's land.

Civilization is rooted, and grounded in the home-owning, home-loving, home-defending instincts, says E. C. Branson.

"The homesteader," said Governor Bickett, "is the most conservative, and at the same time the most militant force in our civilization. The home-owner is a lover of peace, a pioneer in progress, but a very demon in battle when danger threatens the land he loves. The small farm owned by the man who tills it is the best plant bed in the world in which to grow a patriot. Such a condition brings wealth to the soil, and health to the souls of men. On such a farm it is possible to produce anything from two pecks of potatoes to a hill to a President of the United States. Every consideration of progress and safety urges us to employ all wise and just measures to get our lands into the hands of the many and to forestall that most destructive of all monopolies—the monopoly of the soil."

To anchor the farmer to his land and the villager to his home, to enable him to till the land under equal conditions and to hold that home in in-

dependence, to save with his hands the just proportion of his labor, that he may sow in content and reap in justice—this is what we need, said Henry Grady.

It is now and has always been easier to acquire homes and farms in America than anywhere else on earth. What then is the explanation of the estate in life of the landless millions of North Carolina and the nation? Why, after more than two centuries of history, are there fifty-seven million landless people in the United States?

The fundamental causes are four. They lie (1) in heredity—mainly in the poverty, illiteracy, insanitary living, ill health, and hopelessness into which the tenant masses are born; (2) in personal deficiencies—mainly in a lack of the home-owning virtues, namely industry, thrift, sagacity, sobriety, and integrity; (3) in enveloping social-economic conditions that make it more and more difficult to buy and pay for farms and city homes, say under the crop-lien, time-price, supply-merchant system of farm tenancy areas, or the rack-rents that prevail in town and city centers, or the company ownership of mill village dwellings; and (4) in civic conditions—mainly in the laws of western civilization controlling private property ownership and the taxation of land values.

Any plan or scheme or law aimed at promoting home and farm ownership must take all these causes into consideration. I shall speak briefly of these causes as I have named them. They are all of them human-nature causes, individual and social; that is to say, they inhere in the very nature of human nature.

A primitive instinct of mankind is never to economize in anything that is abundant. For instance, water and daylight are seldom used with economy, or fruits in an abundant season, or money during periods of prosperity. In obedience to the same primitive instinct, lands and forests during the plentiful early days of the nation were held and used and wasted in wanton fashion. It is human nature not to save, not to economize anything that is plentiful. Most people accumulate most when times are bad. It has always been scarcity that has bred in people the practice of economy. Economic surveys prove conclusively that even in periods of scarcity, only about one person in every ten saves anything. The other nine consume all they produce and spend all they earn from day to day. The more primitive a people are the less they save. The Indians or Africans, for example, gorge at a buffalo or elephant feast, and starve for weeks thereafter. Consuming in reason and laying by supplies for future seasons is no part of the philosophy of children or childish individuals and races.

The beginnings of farm tenancy in the United States hark back to the days when rich lands in the west could be had for a small registration fee, and in the south for a few dollars an acre. Land was abundant and cheap—too abundant and too cheap to challenge economy. The provident few secured it and held it; the improvident multitude carelessly threw away their chances at farm ownership, and bequeathed farm tenancy to the landless farmers of succeeding generations.

The Home-Owning Virtues

A second explanation of town and country tenancy lies in a common lack of the home-owning virtues. These are industry, thrift, sagacity, sobriety and integrity. Not one alone but all these are necessary to the firm possession of landed property. The lack of any one of them is fatal.

If a man lacks industry of the patient, persistent, steady gaited variety, he does not easily or often become a home or a farm owner. Sometimes through good fortune he inherits money or landed property, but it is sure to slip away from him unless he has the home-owning virtues. A tenant can never be anything but a tenant unless he possesses these virtues, or develops them.

Thrift is the combined effect of foresight and self-denial. It is the power to look ahead coupled with the power of self-control; the rainy-day sense in combination with the power to say no to oneself in the presence of immediate pleasures, for the sake of remoter, larger satisfactions. Manifestly the lack of thrift means the lack of property of any sort in any abundance.

Sagacity is what the farmer calls level-headedness, long-headedness, horse-sense, and the like. It is the power to reason things through to a safe conclusion; the power to pick up a chain of causes and consequences and to finger it through link by link, from end to end; to see the final, far away fact as vividly as most other men see the things that are present to the physical eye. It is the power that enables a man to look scrutinizingly into the future and to plan for its exigencies. Lacking sagacity a man lacks property in any large measure.

In like manner to be destitute of sobriety and integrity is to be headed toward the landless homeless estate of the vast multitude in this and every other country. The lack of these two qualities in a man's character places him at a disadvantage in the business world. It robs him of the credits and concessions that every man needs, that are always necessary and prerequisite in the securing of a home or a farm by a moneyless man. Nobody wants as a neighbor a man who is deficient in integrity and sobriety, and nobody will extend enough credit to such a man to pay for a home. Character is the first essential of credit. Credit is not only the ability, but the will to pay what is due exactly when it is due, and nobody can rely on the will or word of a man who lacks sobriety and integrity.

Hereditary Homelessness

Heredity goes a long way toward explaining John Smith, tenant. The average tenant is not only afflicted by one or more of the above mentioned personal causes, but he is usually a victim of the conditions bequeathed to him by his progenitors. In other words heredity is a factor in determining whether a man will be landless, homeless, poverty-stricken, unaspiring, and hopeless, or a sturdy, robust property-owning citizen.

In viewing the conditions transmitted by heredity, we discover that among the many things of personal inheritance that tend toward making

and perpetuating tenancy are, poverty, illiteracy and ignorance, bad health, feeblemindedness, low standards of living, and a pronounced lack of will power. The man who is the victim of one or more of these hereditary infirmities is well-nigh beyond human help. Even if given a home or a farm, he would not stand possessed of it sixty days, or six months, or six years. The reasonable thing, almost the only thing indeed, to do for the hereditarily submerged is to improve the conditions surrounding them and to arouse ambition and pride in self-help. Improving families who are homeless from hereditary causes is a sad and difficult task—a task to be patiently worked at through long years. They are so warped and weakened by the life they have lived that it is hard to extend any assistance that does not still further impoverish their wills to act in their own behalf. The conditions created by inheritance are not easily cured—and least of all by sentiment. It is a task that calls for the highest order of wisdom.

People who are born into the squalid conditions of poverty, imbued from the cradle with primitive ideas of right and wrong, reared in foul surroundings, physical and moral, bred to suspicion and resentment or to servility and cunning, do not easily understand the social order or aspire to enter it. They naturally conclude that the world is made up of two fatally fixed classes, the one poverty-stricken and homeless and forever so doomed, the other the well-to-do whose way of life lies in keeping the poor in economic subjection. Such views of society by any class constitutes a seed bed of discontent, sedition, revolution, anarchy, bolshevism, I.W.W.ism. There is menace for democracy in the rising tides of landless and homeless men in America.

And it is just as bad for people to become habituated to pauper ideals, customs, habits, modes of living and thinking. It is a public calamity when large masses of people come to prefer poverty and tenancy to any other type and level of life. Even slaves after awhile learn to love their chain, said Rousseau. And already two and a half million farmers in America are becoming satisfied to be tenants—just that and nothing more. Many of them are firmly persuaded that it is poor sense and bad business to own a farm, that it is better sense and better business to rent. Many more of them are cursed with the restless foot of the Wandering Jew. "Me and Mary don't want to own no farm and no nothing much. We likes to move about," said a farm tenant in Chapel Hill during the flush times of the war period. When asked what he was going to do with his big roll of tobacco money, he replied, "Buy a Ford maybe, and ride around and have a good time." It is hard to do much with or for people of this sort. All told these are the folks whose descendants swell the pauper lists and lay heavy burdens on local, state and national treasuries. No single chapter of English history better lays bare the heart of England and her fundamental philosophy of life than the chapter on steadily increasing landlessness and pauperism among the peasant farmers, and the steadily rising poor rates to relieve the poverty of the masses. England has no greater problem today than the landless estate of her people. North Carolina and the nation are rapidly developing the same gigantic social problem.

Already we have vast multitudes in the South who are content to live in hutches and hovels, in poverty and dirt. And the conditions of life inside a house are rarely ever better than the walls and roof of it. These unambitious multitudes remain undisturbed because they herd with others of their own class and share ideas, ideals, and customs that are familiar and friendly. The most distressing thing about such a way of life is, that it is self-perpetuating in rapidly swelling ratios.

If the minds of such people are disturbed by longings they are fastened upon luxuries—not upon homes of their own filled with comforts and conveniences, but upon cheap chromos, tawdry articles of dress, victrolas, automobiles and the like. This childish love of vain display frequently infects the minds of home-owning farm families in remote lonely districts. The young people in such families are attracted to city lights as moths to candle flames. They disappear out of the country home and soon the old folks follow, and what the family had on the farm is soon lost in the waste of city ways—or so it is as a rule. When next the family moves, it follows the iron law of urban migration: it moves from a smaller into a larger city; and the larger the city the more densely massed the population is in the tenement districts, and the more hopeless the social conditions. Not even the rich can any longer afford to live in homes of their own in the largest cities of America. Instead they live in rented apartments and family hotels for the most part. Eighty-nine per cent of all the people of greater New York, for instance, live today in tenements, apartment houses, and hotels. The New York people who live in their own houses are only eleven in the hundred of population.

Social-Economic Causes

The social-economic causes of tenancy are primarily those that grow out of industrial-urbanism. Modern industrialism means the big-scale production of economic goods by labor-saving, profit-producing devices in factory systems. During the last hundred years America has moved up from agricultural levels to industrial-commercial levels under city conditions. So it is in the great industrial area east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio and Potomac rivers; and so it is in the great industrial area of North Carolina. The movement is out of domestic production with hand tools owned by the workers, into factory production with machines owned by the corporation. It is a way of life that not only strips workmen of their tools but also of houses of their own and even of the desire for home ownership. It masses them in company-owned houses in mill villages or in city centers. And the larger the city, the fewer are the people who live in homes of their own. The more populous and prosperous an area becomes the more the tenants and the fewer the owners, and this apparently fatal law of life is just as evident in rich farm areas as in rich cities. The rent of factory dwellings is always small, ranging from fifty cents to a dollar or so a room per month in the south, and sometimes the houses are occupied rent free. Naturally the factory-owned village is the most practical plan for factory owners, and the most convenient plan for

factory employees, but the future of a democratic commonwealth considered, it is futile or perilous in the long run, because it produces or tends to produce an instable, irresponsible citizenship—landless, largely propertyless, discontented, restless, and roving, no matter what the wages, hours and conditions of labor may be. They shift from factory to factory, from city to city. They are tethered to no community by ties of home ownership, community interest, and pride of partnership in community enterprises. In consequence hobo help and the labor turn-over are problems that pester industrial corporations increasingly everywhere; while labor unions, strike situations, and destructive social philosophies rise into proportions that fill the statesmen of the land with dismay. The new industrial order produces a migratory population that has no permanent identity with any community or country, and that contributes little to the social progress of any particular civic group. This constant moving increases illiteracy as children are seldom in one place long enough to secure much benefit from the schools. Illiteracy breeds poverty, bad health conditions, and pauperism, and these combined produce ill health and feebleminded-ness in larger measures. All of which tends to swell the ranks of the homeless class.

The social-economic causes that create tenancy in country areas are sparsity of population, life in solitary farmsteads, a few to the square mile, meagre social life, poor roads, poor schools, few churches, the absence of farm communities, of community spirit, and of coöperative farm enterprise. Under social conditions of this sort a large number of country people become discontented and move out, to take a chance as tenants in more progressive farm communities, or to become wage-earners in factory centers, or to swell the population of the cities. It is obvious that under such conditions tenancy would be more profitable in many respects in a good community than farm ownership in a dead or dying country area.

And furthermore, once a tenant always a tenant is becoming more and more true, because of the share-rent, crop-lien, supply-merchant, time-price system under which the farm tenants of the South live and by which they are destroyed. No matter what they produce, in good years or bad, the products of their toil go in rent to the landlord and in excessive interest and profits surrendered to the supply-merchant. If in good years they have a surplus left over, land is the last thing they can buy. There is plenty of it everywhere, and little market demand for it, but the selling price is far beyond the means of the average tenant, black or white—not only beyond his means but far beyond his business ability in financing a farm proposition.

Civic Causes

The civic causes creating and perpetuating town and country tenancy lie in the main in the common-law meaning of property, and in legislation concerning the taxation of land values. All other causes—personal, heredity, and social-economic—are re-inforced and firmly fixed in law and custom. The landless, homeless estate of men cannot be cured by law alone,

but without certain legislation the way up and out of tenancy into ownership is difficult and day by day it becomes more and more difficult for the average man. These civic hindrances to home ownership concern (1) the primary meaning of property, and (2) the prevailing principle of taxing land values.

The essential idea of property in our western civilization is negative. That is to say, ownership lays no obligation on the owner to use his property, but it gives him the right to keep anybody else from using it. A property right is thus a sort of dog-in-the-manger proposition. This principle of property is in itself sufficient to explain the millions of idle acres, the millions of vacant town lots, and the millions of town and country tenants in the United States. The idea that it is essentially right for one man or many men to secure large tracts of land and to hold them out of productive use for speculative rises in values is a principle that will certainly come into public discussion some day in America, as in Australia, New Zealand, England and Canada long ago. The progressive land tax, the transfer tax, the inheritance tax are all coming on the law books of progressive countries, and becoming more and more effective to free unused farm land and vacant city lots and to put them within the reach of aspiring home owners and productive business genius in farm areas as well as in city centers.

Practically all the fertile idle acres of the state and nation are held out of use by a property right that is negative—the right to keep others from using the land that the owner does not choose to use.

Under law and custom of this sort there are twenty-two million idle wilderness acres and a million three hundred and forty thousand landless people in North Carolina. These acres are held out of productive farm use and kept beyond the purchasing power of the average tenant, not because the owners are wicked but because under existing law and custom it is possible for them to own unused landed property and possibly to sell it some day for many times the price originally paid for it. It is possible to hold it because land values get on our tax books at minimum figures and tax rates on land are relatively low—so low that it remains possible to hold the land and to hope for a handsome return in a profitable sale some good day. The same principle applies to vacant city lots. Meantime tenancy grows on the body politic like a creeping paralysis.

I predict that soon or late we shall be obliged to have (1) a progressive land tax in full force and effect in the United States as in New Zealand, (2) a transfer tax and a death tax that fairly divide the unearned increment with society as in England, and (3) laws promoting home and farm ownership on the colony plan as in Australia and California.

In conclusion let me say that a vicious crop-lien system tends to perpetuate farm tenancy. It is hard to uproot such a system by legislation. And the supply-merchant's risks and hazards are excessive. But the sad fact is that the store-keeper has a strangle-hold upon the farm tenant, and oftentimes forces him to pay extortionate prices and interest rates. Thus the tenant remains unable to get out of debt from year to year. He lives

with a rope around his neck. What law cannot do economic farm organization can do, as certainly in this country as in Ireland where the gombeen man is nearly extinct at last.

In this paper I am only trying to pave the way for the discussion of remedial measures in subsequent studies—remedies that lie in self-help, in the use of savings banks, credit unions, building and loan associations, in state and federal aid laws, and so on.

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January 16, 1922.

THE STATUS OF THE FARM TENANT: IN EUROPE AND THE UNITED STATES; LIVING STANDARDS IN NORTH CAROLINA

MISS EUGENIA BRYANT, Orange County

The cultivation of farms by tenants rather than by owners, at least in 24 states of the union, is the big, significant social-economic fact of American country life today. During the last forty years the tenant farmers in the United States have increased from one million to two and a half millions. While farm owners have increased 44 per cent, farm tenants have increased one hundred and fifty per cent. The fact that farm tenancy increases in the United States nearly four times as fast as farm ownership has occasioned alarm in the minds of thoughtful people throughout the entire country, and some states have called special sessions of the legislature to consider this particular problem, Wisconsin, Kansas and Nebraska leading. Today one out of every three farmers in the United States is a tenant; in North Carolina two out of every five; and in the South as a whole one out of every two.

In 1910, 42.3 per cent of all the farms of North Carolina were cultivated by tenants; and in 1920 the ratio had risen to 43.5 per cent. Today there are 24,451 more tenant farms in the state than twenty years ago.

Tenancy as a Social Ill

Dr. Branson says that the social consequences of tenancy farming in the United States grow out of two fundamental facts: (1) The short-term contract, usually for one year, commonly without written legal form, frequently at the pleasure of the landlord, which leaves the tenant to be barely more than a tenant-at-will, and (2) as a result the farm tenant families of the United States, and especially of the South, are a restless, roving, irresponsible element of citizenship—the type of citizenship the country over that swells the ranks of the I. W. W.'s and the radical socialists of all types year by year. A little more than one-half of the tenant farmers of the South move every year. They move from one farm to another, in the same county, from one county to another, from one crop area to another, and from one state to another. They are forever on the move. Consequently they have a poor chance to develop a sense of stable, sturdy democratic citizenship. The ratio of change varies. It runs highest in the cotton and tobacco areas and lowest in the grain, hay and forage areas. Nearly four-fifths of the tenant farmers in Orange county remain on the same farm five years or more. The latest figures for Orange show an annual change of twenty per cent.

Farm Tenancy in Europe

Several years ago James Wilson and Henry Wallace were sent by the federal government to study farm tenancy in the British Isles and Continental Europe. The verdict they brought back was that, in contrast with the tenant of European countries, the American tenant is living under the

most vicious and wicked tenancy system in the known world. In America we have the short-term tenant, whereas in Europe the long-lease tenant is the rule, these leases running from five to twenty years. The tenant leases in Europe are legal documents in which both landlords and tenants are fully protected to the last detail. At the expiration of a lease in Great Britain, the tenant receives in the settlement the value of all improvements he has put upon the farm and farm buildings, including even the fertilizer used in soil improvement. Even an additional pane of glass put into the farm house is credited to the tenant. The landlord on his side is also protected against deterioration of soils and buildings, neglect, abuse and damage of every sort. The result of this long-lease system is that the tenant is generally satisfied to remain on the farm, and takes pride in the appearance of the farm property. The inheritance of leases, that is, the handing down of leases from one generation to another, tends, however, to perpetuate tenancy rather than to promote land ownership. Once a tenant always a tenant is the rule abroad. No matter how thrifty the farmer is, he has almost no chance to become a farm owner anywhere in Europe outside of England, Ireland, and Denmark. What he inherits is a lease, and all that he can ever buy, as a rule, is a lease. The European tenant also suffers from rigid class dinstinctions. He is next to the soil. He is the mud-sill of the social structure. He recognizes this fact, and not often does he rebel against it. An intimate look into the living conditions of the peasant farmer in central France is given in Guillaumin's Life of a Simple Man and Roupnel's Nono; of the English peasant life in Rowntree's How the Laborer Lives in England and Wales; and of Russian peasant life, in Earnest Poole's The Village. Outside of Denmark there was no escape for the peasant farmer and his family in Europe until the upheaval of the World war, which broke up the big estates and gave them to the peasant farmers of Russia and the Balkan States in particular.

In the Middle-West and the South

The American tenant farmer, however, may and does occasionally rise out of tenancy into ownership. Within the last ten years 6,000 farmers in North Carolina have come into possession of new farms. It is not possible, however, to say authoritatively how many of these new farm owners were former tenants. According to Dr. Branson's opinion, however, "the chances are that half of them were tenant farmers who rose out of a lower estate in life, as they could never have done under the old order of things in Europe."

Farm tenancy in the United States is greatest in the South and in the Corn Belt of the Middle West. Practically nine-tenths of all the farm tenants in the United States may be found in these two farm areas, and nearly two-thirds of the farm tenants of the nation are in the South.

The status of the tenant farmer in the United States calls for two statements, since tenancy is one thing in the South and another in the Middle West. In the Middle West share and cash renters are in majority —so-called because they pay their annual rent in cash or in definite shares

of the crops produced. They commonly own their own live-stock, farm tools and implements, and they cultivate farms that average from five to ten times the size of the tenant farm in the South. They must have from five to ten thousand dollars of cash operating capital—oftentimes it amounts to $50,000 or more. As a rule they do not care to own farms, but prefer to use their capital in operating the farms owned by other people. The farm surveys in the central west show that the net labor income of the tenants in average years is often greater than that of the owners of rented farms or of the owners who farm their own lands.

In the South nearly nine-tenths of the tenant farmers are share-tenants and croppers. These two different economic systems naturally result in a different type of farm tenant in each of these two different tenant areas. Whereas the tenant in the Middle West generally makes enough in average years to tide him over the poor years, the farm tenant in the South has very little left over when the year's work is ended and the balance sheet is struck. The croppers in the South generally have no cash operating capital and only a minimum amount of tools and household equipments. Something like a third of them probably own work-animals, but usually they have no other livestock whatsoever, except an occasional pig or a few chickens. They move so often they lose interest in accumulating household goods, kitchen utensils, and domestic animals. It is too much trouble to move them, they say.

The Field Study in Carolina

We are attempting here to give simply a bird's-eye view of the social and economic status of the tenant in the United States in contrast with Europe; and in the Middle West in contrast with the South. The particular contribution to this subject by the club is an intimate field study of the tenant farmers in nearby farm areas. The plan is to make a study of all the farm tenant homes in a compact area, which work is already begun, and will be reported in full to Dr. Branson for a chapter of the next Year-Book of the North Carolina Club. I can now give only a brief account of living conditions in a few of the farm tenant homes already studied. I have also included accounts by local persons who have an intimate knowledge of these conditions, and who are greatly interested in this problem. As my own study is so far confined to only five or six families, I do not in any way wish the statements made in this paper to be taken as representing average conditions. I am attempting to give merely an account of the conditions found by me in a few farm tenant homes in central North Carolina, or passed on to me by residents of the community.

The household equipment of a Southern cropper frequently consists of a cord-bedstead, a table or two, a few chairs, usually with the seats broken out, a few pots, kettles, and pans—the frying pan or the skillet seeming to figure most prominently in the kitchen equipment—a few bed-clothes, occasionally a pig, and a few chickens.

A minimum budget level, which is necessary to maintain a standard of health and decency, according to the United States Bureau of Applied Economics, Washington, D. C., includes, (1) a sufficiency of nourishing food for the maintenance of health, primarily the health of children; (2) housing which will provide a sufficient number of rooms consistent with decency, with sufficient light, heat and facilities for the maintenance of health and decency; (3) the upkeep of household equipment, such as kitchen utensils, bedding and linen necessary for health; (4) clothing sufficient in warmth, and of a sufficiently good quality to be economical; (5) the keeping up of a modest amount of insurance, provision for medical and dental care, contributions to churches and other beneficent organizations, simple amusements, some pleasure, including Christmas gifts for the children, etc., and a daily newspaper.

According to these standards the Southern farm tenant family, as a rule, lives far below the minimum. The diet of the farm tenant family consists principally of corn-bread, fat meat, molasses, and possibly field peas, corn, beans, sweet potatoes, cabbage, collards, and turnip salad in season. The better farm tenant families have chickens and eggs, fresh pork in the mid-winter, rabbits, opossum and other common game; and also milk and butter in central and western North Carolina. In the cotton and tobacco counties in the coastal plain and tidewater country milch cows are rarely found in farm tenant homes. The diet is simple, ill-balanced, and little varied the year round.

According to Miss Florence Nesbitt of Chicago, a well known dietician and social worker, a well-balanced diet includes the different food values required for adults and children and affords the variety that is necessary to maintain health. The foods recommended in her interesting book on Household Management are within the means of any family of moderate income. The diet of the Southern farm tenant family is characterized by an excess of starches, fats, oils and sweets, and a minimum of lean meat, poultry, eggs and milk. According to Miss Nesbitt, the minimum requirement of milk for an adult is a half pint per day, and for children from a pint to a quart per day, according to age.

Farm tenancy in the South is greatest in the tobacco and cotton belt counties; and in these counties food and feed crops are incidental or accidental, and meat and milk animals are rare. In the whole of North Carolina last year only one hundred and eighty million dollars' worth of food crops was produced and perhaps seventy millions more of animal products. On the other hand the food and feed bill of the state was around four hundred and eighty-two million dollars. The farm tenants of the eight hundred cotton counties of the South have been living on short rations the last year or so, because they produce cotton and tobacco mainly and not bread and meat in any quantities sufficient for home consumption. Besides, they have little money and less credit with which to obtain food supplies at the stores. With a shortage of two hundred and thirty-five million dollars in home-produced bread and meat, it is safe to say that the diet of the cropper in North Carolina has been reduced to its very lowest terms in the last two years.

A recent survey of farm homes in St. Joseph county, Michigan, including seventy-two owners and nineteen tenants, shows that fifty-two per cent of the farm families have lived in the locality at least twenty-five years and only eight per cent less than five years. There was found to be an average of one person to every two rooms and 4.1 persons per family. In only a few cases were household conveniences present. The total average cash expenditure was $300 per family per year. There was great indifference shown toward community improvements and there was found to be little effort to regulate recreation in the homes, although the families did visit one another occasionally. So reads a brief account of a Survey of Farm Homes, in the November 1921 number of the American Journal of Sociology.

Since the figures covering the results of this survey included the homes of both owners and tenants, it is difficult to tell whether these statements fairly represent the average conditions in tenant homes alone.

The number of rooms in tenant homes in the South, I judge, will average fewer per family than in the Middle West. The majority of tenant homes that have come under the personal observation of the writer have consisted of two or three rooms. The typical tenant dwelling appears to be the two-room cabin, with perhaps a kitchen built on as an after-thought —as a lean-to, in the language of the country regions. In some cases there are one or two unfinished attic rooms making a story and a half in all, but these do not often seem to be used for sleeping purposes. One room on the ground floor is often used as a sleeping room for the whole family, or two rooms at the most.

In one tenant home visited by me, there was only one bed in the one room where the whole family slept. The five children slept in a pile of cotton in one corner of the room. In cold weather, as a substitute for bed clothes, the children burrowed a little deeper into the cotton. This house consisted of a one-room log cabin with a kitchen built on the back. The household equipment consisted of little more than the bed, a quilt, possibly a blanket or two (no bed-linen was in evidence), a stove, two or three broken chairs, a skillet, a few pots and pans, and a few dishes, which were, surprisingly enough, kept in an old safe which stood in one corner of the small kitchen. The family owned a pig, a few chickens, a dog and several cats, all of which wandered through the house at will. Supreme disorder reigned in the household.

This home is not, of course, an average tenant home. Evidently it ranks low in the scale of such homes. I am citing it here only as an interesting example from a social viewpoint rather than as a typical condition existing in tenant homes.

I have learned from Dr. Branson and others acquainted with tenancy conditions in the South, that farm tenant houses often show encouraging signs of domestic cleanliness; such as window curtains, gleaming white bed covers and table cloths, the negro tenant's wife being surprisingly prominent in housekeeping of this sort, but that as a rule chemical cleanliness is almost unknown in tenant homes. Unsanitary conditions are pre-

valent. There are often no outhouses for either sex, and few screens. The well, when there is one, is usually located at the edge of the barn lot, or in it, and rarely ever has a cover. Pig-pens are sometimes found under the kitchen windows. As a result the mortality and morbidity rate among farm tenant children from fly-borne diseases in the summer is high. The tuberculosis rate is also high, especially among the negroes.

"The lot of the Southern tenant," says Dr. Branson, "is a hard lot. He is the victim of tenancy and its sister ills of ignorance, poverty, and hereditary hopelessness."

The social problems which naturally result from these conditions are numerous. Not the least among these are child labor, truancy, illiteracy, infant mortality, mal-nutrition, intestinal diseases, tuberculosis, low standards of living, immorality, and the like.

The tenancy problem is largely a Southern problem, and it is gratifying to note the keen interest the people of North Carolina are showing in the efforts of the North Carolina Club to ascertain the facts, to hunt down the causes, and to determine the curative measures needed.

January 30, 1922.

HOW FARM TENANTS LIVE

In Baldwin and Williams Townships, Chatham County, N. C.

A Field Survey by J. A. Dickey, A.M., of Alamance County, N. C., in the summer of 1922. Interpretation by E. C. Branson, Kenan Professor of Rural Social Economics, University of North Carolina.

Introduction

1. The schedule of the North Carolina Club at the University of North Carolina in 1921-22 covered the various phases of Home and Farm Ownership—Town and Country, and week by week the University News Letter carried to the press and the people of the state brief summaries of the Club reports, discussions and conclusions. The Club Year-Book will soon be going into the mails, and in twenty-two chapters will give to the public these studies in full detail.

2. In December 1921 the State Board of Agriculture appointed a State Farm Tenancy Commission consisting of B. F. Brown, Chief of the State Marketing Bureau, Chairman; Clarence Poe, member of the State Board, and editor of the *Progressive Farmer;* C. C. Taylor of the State College of Agriculture and Engineering; W. C. Jackson of the State College for Women; and E. C. Branson of the State University. The three state institutions named were asked to collaborate with the State and the Federal Department of Agriculture and to conduct field studies of farm tenancy in three typical farm territories. These surveys were made in the summer months of 1922, in compact areas of (1) Edgecombe, a cotton county in the East, (2) Chatham, a diversified farm county in the mid-state, on the edge of the cotton-tobacco belt, and (3) Madison, a mountain county that for fifty years has been developing the evils of tenancy farming in a territory almost exclusively white in population. The surveys were under the general direction of Dr. C. C. Taylor, who is now summarizing the results for the State Tenancy Commission, which in turn will report its findings and conclusions to the State Legislature through the State Board of Agriculture.

3. The particular responsibility of the State University in these surveys was Chatham county which lies within easy distance of the campus. The University surveyor was J. A. Dickey of Alamance county which adjoins Chatham. Mr. Dickey is an A. B. graduate of Elon College, an A.M. graduate of the University, and during his university year an active member of the North Carolina Club. Both the survey purposes and the farm folk surveyed were familiar to Mr. Dickey. He was born and reared on an Alamance county farm. All his life he has lived among the farm people in the hill country on the edge of the fall line of the state. His courses in rural social-economics at the University were directly aimed at his summer survey task, and his field work was done with rare insight, sympathetic understanding, and unfailing tact. Mr. Dickey is now a research fellow of the Cornell College of Agriculture, at Ithaca, N. Y.

4. In keeping with formal resolutions of the Tenancy Commission before the survey began, the North Carolina Club at the University has used the data assembled in Chatham county by Mr. Dickey for a Year-Book chapter on The Social Status of Our Farm Tenants. It is the phase of farm tenancy that the Club has been most interested in. We have therefore considered the economic data in brief and only as related in the largest way to the social estate of John Smith—Tenant. The economic summaries and significances of the surveys in the three counties will be found in detail in the forthcoming report of Dr. Taylor covering all the counties studied and all phases of the study.

5. The conclusions and recommendations of this particular chapter concern Chatham county tenancy in Baldwin and Williams townships, and convey to the public the best thinking of the North Carolina Club. Which means that we are purposing to relieve our collaborators of responsibility for the utterances herein—and possibly, of embarrassment.—E. C. BRANSON, *Chairman of the Steering Committee, North Carolina Club.*

HOW OUR FARM TENANTS LIVE

I

The Money They Live On

What about marrying on $20 a month—really on $6.00 a month in money, the balance of your cash income being held back till the end of the year? On a money income of that sort, do you think you'd have the nerve to set about establishing a home, sheltering, feeding, clothing, and safe-guarding a family in sickness and in health, and giving the children a decent chance at life?

I shoved these questions at a young college graduate on the train the other day—a cotton buyer in a flourishing cotton-belt city.

He looked at me in amazement. Kidding me? said he. Looks like it. I'm getting $200 a month, and I can't get married. I'd be a fool to marry on any such income. It couldn't be done in my town.

But, said I, this is exactly what fifty-one farmers have had the nerve to do in one small corner of a mid-state county in North Carolina. Thirty-eight of them are tenants, who handled in 1921 a household average of $250.64 in cash in the run of the year or just a little more than $20 a month. Thirteen are croppers with a household average of $153.27 in cash or a little less than $13 a month. And they are not negro farmers. They are white farmers—tenants to be sure, but native born whites of your race and mine.

How in the name of the Holy-Pink-Toed Prophet do they do it? he said. By which epithet, I gathered that he had been chumming with Cappy Ricks o'nights around the office stove.

Well, said I, they have no house rent to pay—that's everywhere free in this blessed land of cottontots; and no coal bills, for fire-wood is still abundant and free on every farm in North Carolina. Their grocery bills are small, because the farm itself furnishes from three-fourths to four-fifths of the food they eat—vegetables, milk and butter, poultry and eggs, and a little home-raised pork. And then they have various fruits and game in season, by grace of their landowning neighbors or the free gift of the fields. The landlords want their share of the corn and the cash-crop money, but everything else the tenants produce is freely their own. They have plenty to eat and wear, sheer existence considered. It is impossible to starve or freeze in the country regions of North Carolina. God Almighty made the state to be a paradise for poor folks.

He came back at me promptly. But, said he, they need money for shoes and head-wear; they need money for doctors, midwives and dentists, for prescriptions and patent medicines at the drug store, for the contribution box at the church on Sundays, for taxes and insurance, for gas and oil, for chewing tobacco and snuff and a cigar once in a while, for gun shells and fishing tackle, for school books, newspapers and victrolas, for movies, ice-cream cones and bottled drinks, for fairs, circuses, and street carnivals in the occasional trips to town.

Sure, I said. And after paying the family bill for bread, bonnets and paregoric, how much do you think they have left for social servants like teachers, preachers, and doctors, for social institutions like churches, schools, and colleges, for state and county treasuries, and for petty self-indulgences?

They couldn't have much ready money left over for any such purposes as these, said he. After paying my room rent, cafeteria charges, haberdashery bills, bootblack and barber fees, pressing-club dues, newspaper and magazine subscriptions, and various inescapable incidental expenses, I had only $150 left over last year, and the doctors got every cent of that before I had any chance to spend it on a good time Christmas. I didn't wind up the year in debt, but I was barely on the safe side of the dead-line. I think I did pretty well, better in fact than most of the fellows. But as for getting married on $200 a month—nix! I'd be an idiot to do it.

But, I said, on a money average of $20 a month these fifty-one white tenant farmers not only kept themselves and their families alive, but twenty-five of them were out of debt at the end of the year. And more, they have actually accumulated $23,277 in personal property—in work-stock, farm implements, household goods and utensils, automobiles, guns, and dogs; and their debts all told were only $4,100. Debts counted out, they are nearly $20,000 ahead of the game.

Well, all I've got to say, he replied, is that they are some financiers! They've got more sense than I've got. If you are giving me straight dope, don't ever again let anybody talk to you about stupid, lazy tenant farmers.

But say, said he, how do these people live? How do they keep soul and body together on an average of thirteen to twenty dollars a month in money? What are their standards of living? What are their notions of comfort and culture? They are not starved nor even half-starved in body, you say, but they must be wholly starved in mind—halt and maimed and blind in spirit! What can they look forward to? Can they ever hope to be anything but underling farmers, disadvantaged and under-privileged, they and their children and their children's children to the remotest generation?

All of which are tremendously important questions. They concern 63,487 white farm tenants in North Carolina. With their families they number 317,500 souls, or nearly one-fifth of the entire white population of the state. Who are these people? Why are they farm tenants instead of farm owners? On what level do they live? What are their hopes and fears? What chance have they to rise out of farm tenancy into farm ownership?

A Close-up Study

John Smith—Tenant, is a piteous figure, as MacNeill's pen gives him to us in the *News and Observer*. But John Smith, the Wayne county tenant who took the first prize for diversified farming, at the state fair last year, is quite another story. We know much about this or that tenant

farmer, but in the South we know almost nothing about our white tenant farmers as a class. And landlords know much about the tenant farmer as an economic factor in the business of farming, but they know very little about him as a social and civic asset or liability in community life and commonwealth development. In cold figures we know nearly all there is to know about farm tenants the country over—the number, the ratios, the types, and the increases or decreases in each state since 1880; and, in recent years in certain closely surveyed areas in the South and Middle West, cold figures have told us much about their farm practices, their labor incomes, and the havoc they work upon soils and farm buildings. But we know much less, in most states nearly nothing, about the tenant as a human being—his home life, his church and school interests, his habits and hopes, and the part he has played in lifting or lowering the level of civilization in his home community. We have reckoned him in dollars and cents; we have not yet appraised him as a home-maker or as a community builder or destroyer in free American democracies. We have known very little about him as a citizen and we have cared less—or so until very recently in this and other states.

What we need is a close-up study of the 317,000 souls in the families of the white tenants of North Carolina. And it must be a keenly sympathetic study or we shall fail to understand and interpret aright the facts we find.

The Tenancy Area Surveyed

In order to supply this need, at least in part, Mr. J. A. Dickey, an A.M. graduate of the State University, spent the three summer months of 1922 in 329 farm homes of Baldwin and Williams townships in the northeast corner of Chatham county. They were the homes of practically all the farmers of this small area—the homes of owners and tenants, white and black.

Chatham is a mid-state county situated along the Fall Line, on the eastern edge of the Piedmont region of the state. The cotton and tobacco counties of the Coastal Plain adjoin it on the east and south, and on the north and west lie the grain, hay, and forage counties of the state. It is a land of rolling hills, abundant water courses, and rich bottom soils—a natural livestock region. The fertility of the soil is attested by the fact that in the olden days it was the seat of a slave-holding aristocracy. Neither slavery nor tenancy ever flourished in poor soils anywhere in the South. There were 729 slave-holding families in Chatham in 1860. Only six counties of the state had more slave-holders and only sixteen contained more slaves. Nevertheless there were in Chatham nearly 1800 white families who owned no slaves. They outnumbered the slave-owning families more than two to one.* Many of these non-slave-holding families in Chatham owned small farms on the poorer soils of the ridges; some

* The ratio of non-slave-holding to slave-holding families was roughly three to one in North Carolina as a whole, and in the twelve slave-holding states of the South. Of the 126,000 white families in North Carolina in 1860 only 35,000 held slaves; and of the 1,273,000 white families in the South only 355,000 families were slave-holders. Data abstracted from the 1860 census.

were artisans—carpenters, blacksmiths, shoemakers, tailors and the like; some were farm laborers getting $75 a year and board—rarely ever more; some were renters and others were overseers on the slave plantations; most of them were illiterate—the exceptions were few, and all alike belonged to a lower social estate. The negroes called them "pore white trash." Today the descendants of these 1800 families are almost entirely the farm owners of the county. Their trend has been steadily upward these last sixty years. The aristocracy of the old slave plantation died out or moved away long years ago. Hardly a vestige of the old social order remains. The history of Chatham since the war, like that of many another remote slave county, is the story of a middle class rising slowly and clumsily into democratic self-rule.

The county was long without railroads. Even now the middle and upper half of Chatham lacks railroad facilities; and only within the last eighteen months are the public roads of the county beginning to attain to the standards of modern life. In the remoter corners of Chatham, as in Williams and Baldwin townships, country schools are poorly housed and poorly supported. Here the little one-teacher school is still the rule. Local school taxes for consolidated schools and transportation trucks are only just now being considered. Aside from Bynum, a little cotton mill village of forty-odd dwellings in the southeast corner of Baldwin township, there are no towns or villages in this area. The farmers are settled in solitary dwellings (only three to the square mile) as almost everywhere else in the rural South. The thirteen roadside stores, the ten schools, and the twelve churches are the centers of country neighborhood life for whites and blacks alike.

Without convenient market facilities, the farms have naturally been devoted in the main to bread-and-meat production for home consumption. Cotton and tobacco are the small money crops. Corn, wheat, oats, potatoes, milk and butter, poultry and pork are the abundant staples of existence. The farm population is upstanding and sturdy, robust and vigorous. The signs of degeneracy are rare, and I say this having in mind the natives left in the farm regions of the North and East.

But the money the farmers handle from year to year is too little to encourage them to place their schools and local public roads on a basis of liberal tax support. The county is an area designed by nature for diversified farming and well balanced farm systems, but the farmers of Chatham must devote themselves to money crops in larger measures. This fundamental fact cannot be too greatly emphasized in this report. It is the outstanding economic necessity revealed in this study. No farm system can be a satisfactory basis for progressive civilization unless it have money products in abundant measure. The farmers must have markets for their money crops and ready money in circulation far beyond anything Mr. Dickey found in the northeast corner of Chatham. Without a larger volume of ready money for daily needs, the landowners, tenants, and croppers of the two townships surveyed have a poor chance to keep step with the rest of North Carolina.

Living on 23 Cents a Day Per Person

The survey figures are startling. The total gross money income of the 329 farmers of Williams and Baldwin townships in Chatham county in 1921 was only $144,041, and of this grand total $27,162 was produced by work on public roads, bridges and buildings—much of it by work on the buildings under erection on the campus of the State University, by casual labor at odd jobs in the nearby towns, by state and federal pensions, allotments and the like.

In detail the gross money income figures are as follows:

ALL FARMS	Sale of Farm Products	Other Cash Income	Total Money Income	Average Per Family
135 white owners	$ 72,218	$12,325	$ 84,553	$626.24
41 negro owners	18,706	3,002	21,708	529.46
102 negro tenants	17,867	8,396	26,263	257.49
51 white tenants	8,077	3,439	11,517	225.80
329 farmers	$116,868	$27,162	$144,041	$437.81

The average per person in these 329 farm families was only 23 cents a day! The cash in circulation in the homes of the fifty-one white tenants was only twelve cents a day per person, only fourteen cents a day per person in the homes of the negro tenants, only thirty-two cents a day per person in negro farm-owner homes, and only thirty-four cents a day per person in white farm-owner homes!

Here certainly is life reduced to its very lowest terms in money. How could anybody, black or white, live on less money and live at all? How can white tenants on a daily cash income of twelve cents a day per person ever buy and pay for farms of their own? They do it—fifty-seven of the white farm-owners of this particular territory have done it during the last twenty years. And on fourteen cents a day per person, thirty-four negro farm renters and croppers have risen into farm ownership during the same period. The average cash income of tenants in this area has probably been less than fifteen cents a day per person throughout this entire period. They do it, but how they do it passes understanding. And moreover they have done it by self-effort alone. Not one of these ninety-one farm owners, of either race, received his land by inheritance, gift, or marriage.

Can this record be beat in any other state of the Union? This is what I have in mind when I say that God Almighty made North Carolina to be a paradise for poor folks—that is to say, for the average poor man content with merely keeping soul and body together in the country regions. But for the poor man who aspires to own his own farm the state is a purgatory. If the farm is ever paid for, it must be paid for in pinching self-denial, in the field work of his wife and children, and in the lack of school advantages, newspapers, magazines, and noble books. How could it be otherwise on an average money income of fifteen cents a day per person?

The figures of average daily cash income on the farms of these two townships in Chatham county are a cue to the cash farm incomes of North

Carolina in general. The averages are larger in the all-cash-crop counties of the cotton and tobacco belt proper, at least in exceptional years, but all in all our farmers everywhere handle too little money in the run of the year; and their surpluses even in the best years are too small to serve as any safe basis on which to build a commonwealth. Here is the reason why the accumulated personal property of white tenants averages only $526 per family, only $426 per white cropper family, only $409 per black renter family, and only $123 per black cropper family!

The same facts explain why the accumulated wealth in farm properties—farm land, buildings, livestock and implements alone—was only $567 per country inhabitant in Chatham county as a whole in 1920; and only $684 the state over.

These are pitiful figures when contrasted with $1,836, the average wealth per farm dweller in the United States as a whole, with $7,260 in South Dakota, and with $8,113 in Iowa.

There is too little ready cash in circulation in the country regions of North Carolina and too little accumulated wealth. Until both are multiplied many times over, the twelve hundred thousand farm people of North Carolina are a mired wheel in our civilization.

The state as a whole is rich, but our farmers are poor—in Chatham and in every other county of North Carolina.

The farm homes studied by Mr. Dickey were the homes of white farm owners, negro farm owners, negro renters and croppers, and white renters and croppers. In the main, this chapter is concerned with the 51 white renters and croppers. Not that we lack interest in the negro tenants and croppers, but because these negro farmers are working out their own salvation in most amazing fashion—in Chatham just as everywhere else in the cotton-belt South, at least in every area where the blacks are thinly scattered among white majorities.

Thus Mr. Dickey's studies concern a small section of the large problem of white farm tenancy in North Carolina and the South.

Economic Classes and Levels

1. *The Farm Owners.* The land of these two Chatham county townships is owned by 176 landlords—135 white and 41 black. Their accumulated wealth in 1921—in farm lands, buildings, livestock, implements and machinery, household goods and utensils and other personal properties—was $624,642 for the whites and $93,856 for the blacks. Which is an average of $4,627 per white farm owner, and $2,407 per black farm owner. Thirteen of them run small roadside stores. All but sixty-one are active farmers, living on and cultivating a portion of their lands and letting out the rest to renters and croppers. Twenty are absentee-landlords living in other counties—mainly in Chapel Hill. Much or most of the land of the farm owners is lying idle, because farm labor has drifted into the cotton mills at Carrboro, Bynum and elsewhere, or is getting better wages at

public work on roads, bridges and buildings, or in hauling, jitney driving, and odd jobs of various sorts in nearby towns. Farming in these two townships is at a low ebb, for lack of renters, croppers and wage hands.

2. *The Tenants.* The tenants number 153—white 51 and black 102. The ratio of tenants to all farmers is therefore 46.5 percent or nearly half, against 35.8 percent in the county-at-large, and 43.5 percent in the state-at-large. The 51 white tenants have accumulated personal property amounting to $23,277 which is an average of only $456 per family. The 102 black tenants hold property amounting to $31,430, an average of $308 per family. The families of the black and white tenants, as you see, are not very far apart in worldly goods.

The tenants of both races fall into two classes, namely renters and croppers. The white renters are 38 and the white croppers are 13. The black renters are 66 and the black croppers are 36.

All the tenants are farming under one-year contracts, and all the contracts are informal and unwritten. Tenant leases in writing are nowhere common in the South.

(1) *The Renters.* A renter is a tenant who owns his own workstock and farm implements—enough to 'run himself,' as the phrase goes. As a rule he pays three-fourths of the fertilizer bill and gets two-thirds of the corn and three-fourths of the cash crop money. All of everything else the renter produces, except the cotton seed, is his. The details and ratios vary a little here and there according to what the renter furnishes and also according to the fertility of the farm. The renters are the upper-crust of the tenants, the top of the pot, as they say in our farm regions. They rank next to the landlords in the ownership of property—mainly personal property. They own something more than their household goods. In a small way they own the tools of their trade, and enjoy a fairly large measure of independent self-direction. I may add that tenant and renter are interchangeable terms in Chatham and generally throughout the South.

(2) *The Croppers.* A cropper is a tenant who is staked by the landlord—is 'run by the landlord,' in the common phrase of our country regions. He owns little or nothing but the simple things in and around his cabin. Usually he owns no workstock and no farm implements, or not enough to count in the year's bargain with the landlord. Everything is furnished by the landlord—land, dwelling, firewood, workstock, implements, and from time to time small advances of money and pantry supplies to help him produce the crops. He pays half the fertilizer bill and gets half the corn and the cash crop money. Everything else except the cotton seed is his. Against the cropper's half of the crop money, the landlord charges the cropper's debts for advances and the cropper's share of the fertilizer bills. Croppers are 'havers' (halfers) as the phrase goes, with little or nothing to invest in farming except the bare labor of themselves and their families. They are so called because they get not two-thirds or three-fourths of the corn and the cash crop money, as in case of the renters, but only half. As in case of the renter, the cropper's rent details vary somewhat on different farms.

Croppers are distinctly the under-crust of the farmers in the South—the bottom-rail, the under-dog, in country phrase. They are a type of farm population that is almost unknown in the North and West, but they have been a most significant fact in Southern agriculture for more than a half century. Nevertheless the term did not get into the census dictionary until 1920—a strange oversight, considering the fact that 225,000 or a full fourth of all the white tenants in the thirteen cotton and tobacco states of the South are croppers. In North Carolina the ratio is one-fourth, and in Chatham it is one-fourth, and in Baldwin and Williams townships it is one-fourth. One-fourth looks like a fatal ratio for the submerged white croppers of the South. The croppers in particular are The Forgotten Men that Walter H. Page wrote about—The Men Whom God Forgot, in the phrase of Robert W. Service.

Accumulated Property and Gross Money Incomes

How little renters and croppers own and how little money they handle during the year appears in the following table, covering the year 1921 in Baldwin and Williams townships of Chatham county.

ECONOMIC CLASSES	Property Owned	Owned Per Family	Total Cash Income	Cash Per Family
135 white owners	$624,642	$4,627	$ 84,553	$626
41 black owners	93,856	2,407	21,708	597
38 white renters	19,999	526	9,525	251
13 white croppers	3,279	426	1,993	153
66 black renters	27,016	409	19,053	289
36 black croppers	4,113	123	2,777	197
329 farmers	$772,905	$2,349	$139,609	$424

In order to render more vivid the money-bare condition of the farmers in Williams and Baldwin townships in Chatham, we are tabulating the money handled in their homes per person per day in 1921. Throughout this study we are speaking of the gross money income of these farmers. And bear in mind (1) that 69 percent of this income was derived from farming, most of which came in lump sums in the fall when their cotton and tobacco were sold, and (2) that 31 percent of it was produced by other interests and activities more or less casual. This casual income was the ready money they handled from day to day. The bulk of their cash was not in hand till the market season at the end of the year.

The average daily cash income of these 329 farmers in 1921 was as follows:

	Family Cash Per Year	Daily Cash Per Person
135 white owners	$626	34 cents
41 black owners	597	32 "
38 white renters	251	14 "
13 white croppers	153	8 "
66 black renters	289	16 "
36 black croppers	197	10 "

If these were not actual figures reported in person by the farmers themselves, they would be absolutely unbelievable. How can farm tenants live and keep their families alive on average actual cash incomes ranging from eight to sixteen cents a day per family member? How can they afford to wait ten or twelve months for the balance of their money? The answer is, They couldn't but for (1) the meagre credit of the supply stores, and (2) the advances of their landlords—small sums of money and pantry supplies from time to time. And when their crop money comes in later, their debts consume it almost to the last cent.

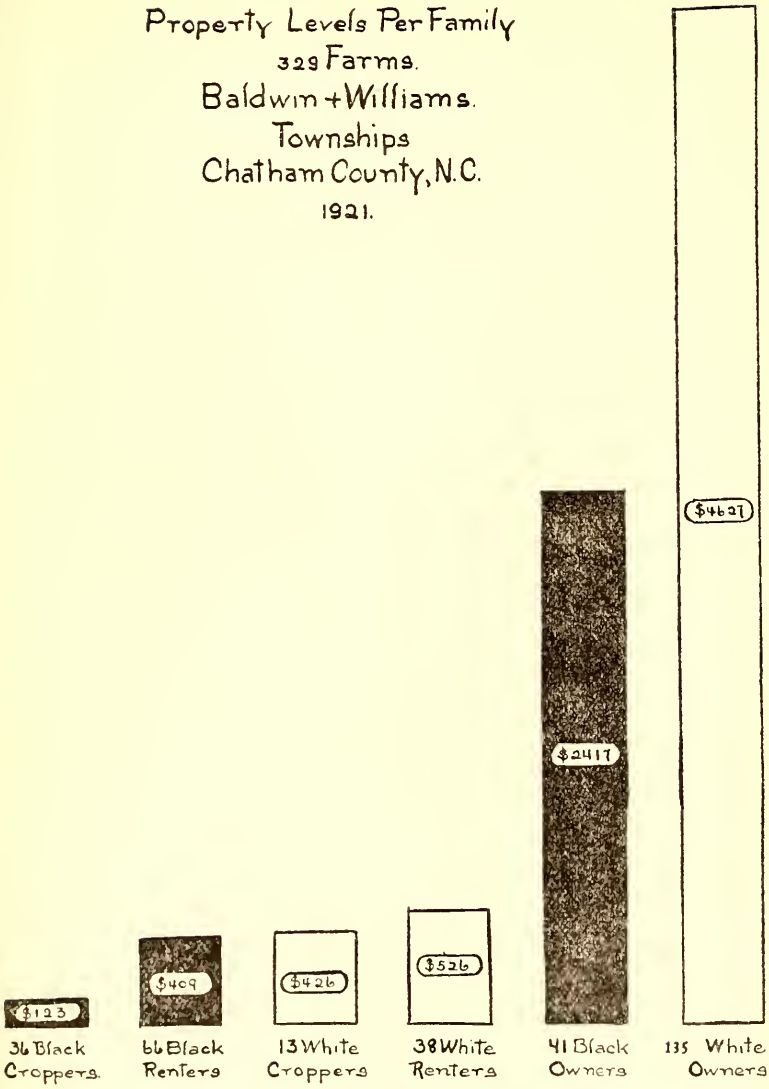
Such is the economic status of 153 renters and croppers, black and white, or nearly half of all the farmers in this little area of the cotton-tobacco belt in the South—the status of 51 or more than a fourth of all the white farmers, the status of 102 or nearly three-fourths of all the negro farmers, in Williams and Baldwin townships in Chatham county, North Carolina.

As the farm tenants are in this little corner of Chatham, so they are in general throughout the state and every other state in the South.

The economic levels of the 329 farm homes covered by this particular field-study are indicated by the following charts exhibiting (1) the average of property owned per family, and (2) the average money handled per day per person in the household.

The concentration of farm property in the hands of the landowners, and the amazingly low levels of farm tenants in property ownership appear at a glance. In detail the facts are as follows: (1) a little more than half of all the farmers, both races counted into the total, are landowners, but they own more than nine-tenths of all the property. (2) The black farm owners are a little more than a fourth of all the negro farmers, but they own three-fourths of all the negro property. (3) The white farm owners are nearly three-fourths of all the white farmers, but they own ninety-seven percent of all the white property.

Farm areas in general are distinctly characterized by the equable distribution of property, but not so in Southern farm tenancy areas. The disparity in property ownership between farm owners and farm tenants is startling. Such farm wealth as we have in the South is in the hands of the farm owners. It is so in the case of both races. What the tenants own—renters or croppers—is nearly nothing. The drawl of a white cropper exhibits it with photographic accuracy; "Ain't no trouble fer me



to move. I ain't got nothing much but er soap gourd and er string er red-peppers. All I got to do is ter call up Tige, spit in the fire place, and start down ther road.''

But the essential disparity lies in the ownership of land or the lack of such ownership. The tenants as a class own no land. They own a little

personal property, but no land. The ownership of land is just as significant today as it was ten centuries ago when the Saxons coined the phrases: "The land is the man; no land, no man; who owns the land owns the man; who owns the land rules the realm."

Landownership and liberty go hand in hand in every land under Heaven under any form of government. Freedom—economic, social and political—lies essentially in the ownership of farms in the countryside, and homes in the towns and cities. Landless farm tenants and homeless city dwellers are a rapidly increasing body of people everywhere in America. Already they are a majority in twenty-one states of the Union—in the Great Industrial area north of the Ohio and east of the Mississippi, they are now an overwhelming majority. And some day these people must be reckoned with en masse. Macaulay's prophecy set 1937 as the fateful year of reckoning between the Haves and the Havenots in America. The beginnings of this time, said Lord Bryce in 1910, lie not more than twenty years ahead. America in her swift onward progress—he goes on to say—sees, looming on the horizon and now no longer distant, a line of mists and shadows wherein dangers may lie concealed, whose form and magnitude she can scarcely yet conjecture.—*The American Commonwealth,* volume II, pp 912-13, 1910 edition. The common condition of landlessness will at last breed a common like-mindedness. Signs of it appear with increasing frequency of late—as for instance in Texas in the last state election—and they are disquieting. Can a civilization forever endure on the basis of political freedom and economic serfdom? At bottom this is the issue that is being fought out in England at this very minute—with ballots, in the English way. Soon or late this is the fundamental issue that America faces, and let us hope that it can be faced in the English and not in the Russian way.

Cash Income Levels

The landowning farmers and the landless tenants, in the Chatham area surveyed, are far apart in the possession of property. There is less distance between them in the annual average cash handled per household. David R. Coker of Hartsville, S. C., reckoned the average cash incomes on the cotton farms of the South in 1921 at $600.*

In our survey, the average cash income of 135 white farm owners was $626 or a little above Mr. Coker's estimate; it was $597 or a trifle below for the 41 black farm owners. As for the tenants, it ranged from $153 for the white croppers to $289 for the black renters. The average gross cash income for the 329 farmers, owners and tenants, black and white, was only $424 in 1921 or nearly a full third less than Mr. Coker's estimate.

These annual cash incomes are in striking contrast with $881.90 the average necessary money income for a family of three, and with $1,501.45 the average for a family of six in the anthracite coal region of Pennsylvania, as reported by the National Industrial Conference Board, in February 1922.

* Address before the Cosmos Club, Columbia, S. C., October 22, 1922.

The black farm owners and the white farm owners were nearly on a level in annual cash incomes per family; and the negro renters were well above the white renters. The black croppers occupy the next level and the white croppers foot the column. The croppers, white and black, handle less than $200 in cash in the run of the year.

The cash incomes of the white farm owners are reduced to a small measure by the idle unproductive land they own. Their main wealth is in land. They are land-poor today, as our landowners were in the days immediately following the war of 1860-65. Nevertheless they hold these profitless lands with grim determination. No other business men on earth would hold on to dead capital in such large measure.

The inadequacy of these cash incomes is better realized when they are reduced to the daily cash per household member.

The table is as follows:

CASH INCOME CLASSES	Daily Cash Per Person
1. White farm owners	34 cents
2. Black farm owners	32 "
3. Black renters	16 "
4. White renters	14 "
5. Black croppers	10 "
6. White croppers	8 "

The advantage of the landless negro farmer over the landless white farmer is plainer than print.

But aside from the question of class levels, the bare facts of daily money income per household member are arresting—or they ought to be.

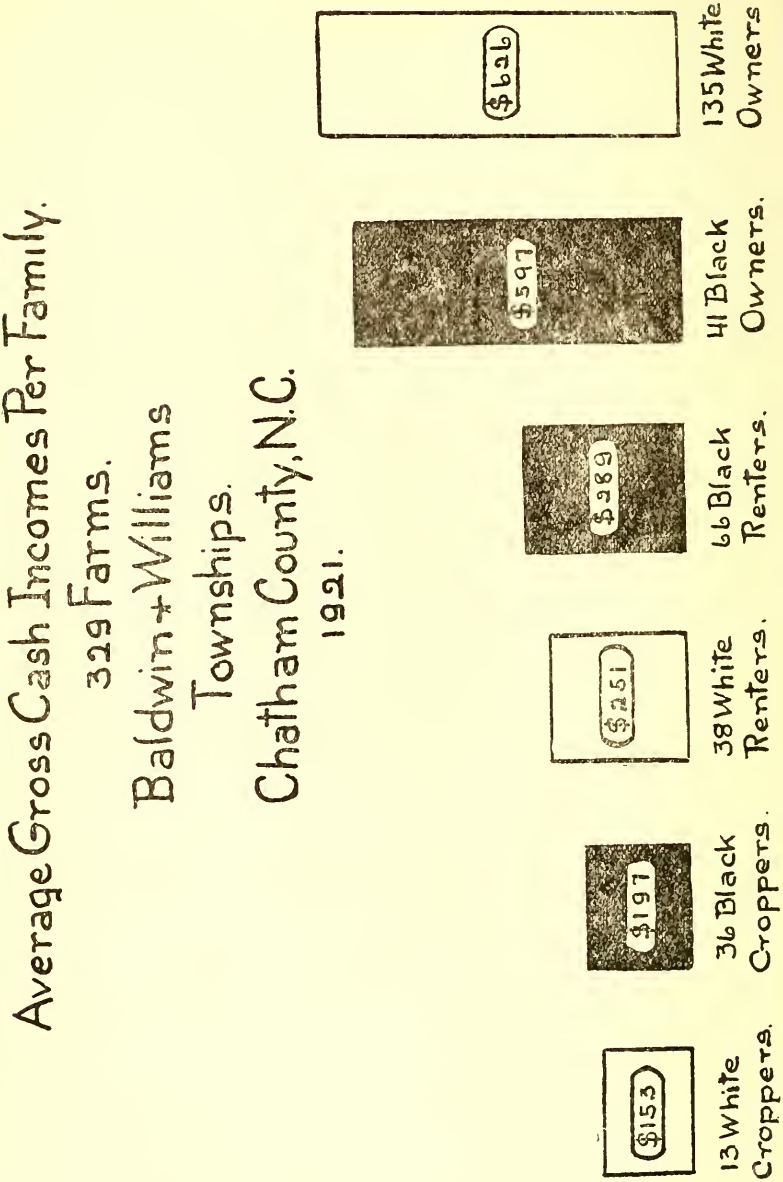
Everybody knows about the picayune daily wage of pauper labor in the far East. We have the same thing in the cotton-belt of the South. We have had vague notions about this thing, but here are the facts or a small cross section of the facts. Half of all our Southern farmers, counting blacks and whites together, are tenants, and a full third of these tenants are croppers. For long years they have been producing cotton on a pauper level at a pauper daily wage in money.

Will they continue to do it? For a half century they have stuck to this back-breaking, heart-breaking task because of use and wont and custom. Will they keep it up forever? It does not seem likely. These submerged farmers cannot produce cotton under boll weevil conditions and keep soul and body together—or not at any prices that cotton has brought at any time during the last forty years.

And if they quit? Well, if they do, the merchants and bankers of the South will face bankruptcy and the cotton spinners of the country will be in sore straits.

And about these facts of gross cash incomes in money, per person in farmer households, this may be said—they are facts.

We do not know and probably never will know the exact cost of producing a pound of cotton on any farm or in any community of any state. The cost varies according to the season, the size of the farm, the industry,


Average Gross Cash Incomes Per Family.
329 Farms.
Baldwin + Williams
Townships.
Chatham County, N.C.
1921.
$153
13 White Croppers.
$197
36 Black Croppers.
$251
38 White Renters.
$289
66 Black Renters.
$597
41 Black Owners.
$626
135 White Owners.

the technical skill and the managerial ability of the farmer; and reliable facts are difficult to assemble because book-keeping and cost accounting are rare in farm areas. The best we have been able to learn about the cost of producing cotton is barely better than a mathematical guess more or less approximate.

And we know almost as little about the net labor income of the cotton farmer. It is a problem of the same character and complexity as that of reckoning the unit cost of cotton production, and the usual results of farm income surveys in the cotton belt are little more than arithmetical approximations.

But we can know about the gross money incomes of farmers. That information is as simple as abc's. We know about the gross money incomes of 329 farmers in two Chatham county townships in 1921—about (1) the cash incomes sourced in farm activities and interests, and (2) the casual money received from all other sources.

And no matter what their net incomes were, their gross incomes in money were a beggar's pittance, ranging from eight cents a day per person in the household of white croppers to 34 cents per person in the household of white farm owners.

Why ask about the net money incomes of people with pitiful money rewards of this sort? We know without asking that surplus cash for comforts and luxuries, for teachers and preachers, for books and papers, for church causes and tax treasuries is scarce—how scarce these farmers alone know; and this scarcity imperils every forward movement in the community and in the commonwealth alike.

Here is the explanation of the farmer's interest in taxes and tax propositions. His interest is simple and single—he is opposed as a class to anything that increases his taxes. And his opposition is not sourced in stupidity nor in miserly reluctance: it is sourced in a collapsed pocket book.

II

The Social Estate of White Farm Tenants

Having considered (1) the property possessions and (2) the gross money incomes of 329 farmers, owners and tenants, black and white, in the area surveyed, let us now turn our attention to the 51 white tenants alone, and ask who they are, how they live, their chances at farm ownership under present conditions by self-effort alone, the need for outside aid, the number who could be aided in this territory, the probable number of such tenants in the state-at-large, and the feasible forms of aid that the state might effectively offer.

1. *Who They Are.* These fifty-one white tenants fall into three classes, (1) twenty-five renters living on and cultivating family lands, (2) thirteen renters with no landowning ancestry—with one exception the sons of landless tenant farmers, and (3) thirteen croppers who are without neighborhood kinship in land tenures—pilgrims, strangers and sojourners in the land, with little or no workstock and farm implements of their own, and

a minimum worldly wealth in household goods and utensils or with an average of only $426 per family, which is only $17 more than that of the 66 negro renters alongside whom they struggle for existence.

(1) The twenty-five white renters living on family lands are distinctly a preferred class of tenant farmers—here as everywhere else in the South. They are the sons, sons-in-law, or nephews of their landlords. They rent on favorable terms, they share in small or large measure in the properties and products of tribal farming—in fruits, vegetables, poultry, butter and eggs, in milk animals, workstock and implements, in automobiles and buggies in trips to town on week days and to church on Sundays, and so on and on. What they need they borrow from the homefolks. They belong to the landed gentry. They enjoy the social estate of the land owners. They live and move on a level with the best in the neighborhood. They are apprenticeship farmers who look forward with more or less certainty to land-ownership by gift, inheritance, marriage, or purchase on easy terms. They know, none better, that farming is no maypole dance; but there are better days in store—not affluence and ease to be sure, but the prideful ownership of farms of their own and life on the highest levels in their home community and county. They are born and bred to farming and the way ahead is open. Many of them choose to be farmers as a way of life despite the call of the crowds in mill towns and city centers. Many or most of the five thousand additional white farm owners in North Carolina in the last census period rose into land-ownership out of this class.

Of the 135 white farm owners in the area covered by this survey fifty-four or two-fifths received their farms by gift, inheritance or marriage during the last twenty years, and of the 51 white tenants at present twenty-five or nearly exactly one-half are tenants on family lands, and are heading into ownership by birth or wedlock. Kith and kin relationships are now and have always been the South's main reliance for increases in the number of landowning farmers and for a stable agriculture based on ownership.

But mark this—these young people, bred to the purple of farm ownership, are the very farmers who can most easily move out of farm territories and adopt the manners and habits of city life; and under boll weevil conditions this is what they are doing in appalling numbers. So because the ownership of land in these devastated areas means farm profits and rent revenues reduced to zero, and farming as a business rendered unattractive or impossible. More and more they are turning away from farming as a livelihood in the South, and as a consequence farm tenancy in the cotton-tobacco belt moves steadily toward the peasant type of European countries. The South, in short, is developing a kind of farm tenancy that is unknown elsewhere in the United States. In the North and West farm tenancy is a capitalistic enterprise; in the south it is a social estate.*

* It would be impossible in any cotton-belt county to find a fifth of the tenants operating with capital ranging from $3,000 to $9,000 each, as in Chester county, Penn., or one hundred tenants each operating with capital ranging from $20,000 to $60,000 and over, as in Iowa. See figures in Bizzell's Tenantry in the United States, pp. 137, 143. Tenancy in the South is not a matter of deliberate choice on part of farmers with operating capital; it is a matter of hard necessity on part of moneyless men.

(2) The thirteen white renters who are not living on family lands are all—or all but one—the sons of renters or croppers. They were not born to landownership. If ever they own farms of their own, they must depend on self-effort alone—on industry, thrift, sagacity, sobriety and integrity. Their lot in life is toil. With only two exceptions, their wives are hoe-hands in the fields, from eight to ten hours a day during periods ranging from thirty to two hundred days of the year according to family circumstances. One of these women is a mother fifty-one years old. The unbroken rule is to send the children, both boys and girls alike, into field work at seven or eight years of age—so because there is no hired labor to be had and no money with which to pay such labor.

The family property these self-help white renters have been able to accumulate ranges from $243 to $1405 in value; the average is $424 or only $153 less than the worldly possessions of the renters seated on family lands. Their ownership of workstock and farm tools is an evidence of industry and thrift. In varying degrees it indicates a look upward out of tenancy into ownership. A further indication of industry is afforded by the fact that their average annual cash income per family is nearly $100 more than that of the white croppers—$251 against $153. They own no more personal property than the white croppers, but they work harder and look higher. As for social status, they are fairly on a level with the preferred class of whife renters on family lands. White owners and tenants of both classes worship together in the churches, their children play together at school and vie with one another for applause at the school commencements, their families exchange visits freely, they fish and hunt together in the open seasons. There are no apparent class differences between white renters and white farm owners in this territory. Both types of renters—those living on family lands and those without kinship to their landlords—are fairly stable types, living as they do on the same farms or in the same neighborhoods year after year. The stability of the white renters is best indicated by the ownership of milk cows. Twenty-nine of the thirty-eight own forty-one cows; eight of these own two cows each and two own three cows each. Only nine renters own no cows and three of these renters have the use of cows belonging to their landlords. Tenants of migratory instincts and habits rarely ever own cows—they are a bother in moving. In this tenancy area milk and butter are abundant staples of family diet; which puts Chatham in sharp contrast with the all-cotton counties of the Tidewater and the Coastal Plains. These renters are people of stable citizenship, or so in the main. Good tenants are too hard to get and to keep, for the landlords to be over-exacting in rent contracts and business dealings. Many of these self-help tenants have been on the same farms year after year. The ratio of change from year to year is less than one-fifth, against one-half in the cotton belt of the State and the South.

(3) The thirteen white croppers are in a different category in many or most particulars. And mind you, they are a fourth of the white tenants in this territory. They lack industry in the area surveyed; as shown

by the fact that their average annual cash income per family is $44 less than that of the black croppers, nearly $100 less than that of white renters, and $136 less than that of the black renters. They lack aspiration, as shown by the fact that they own little or no workstock and farm tools, without which they could not hope to rise out of tenancy into ownership. They lack the home-owning aspirations and virtues of the thirteen self-help farmers in the class next above them. Their standards of living are higher but their levels of life are lower than those of the black farmers alongside whom they live and work; inevitably so because their average cash income is less—22 percent less than that of the black croppers, 47 percent less than that of the black renters, and 74 percent less than that of the black owners. They suffer in personal and in family pride. They move from pillar to post from year to year. They are a migratory type of farmers. They are cursed with the restless foot of the Wandering Jew. They lack identity with the community in which they live. They lack abiding citizenship and a sense of proprietary interest in schools and churches and neighborhood enterprises. They lack a sense of responsibility for community morals, law and order. They live on an average cash income of eight cents a day per family member in the area surveyed and upon some such pauper wage the South over. They are unduly tempted into the business of making and vending illicit liquors. They furnish a disproportionate percent of the white cases on the criminal court dockets. They are satisfied with their landless lot in life. They are a contented not a bold peasantry, in Goldsmith's phrase, but they are not their country's pride. As a class they are a doubtful economic asset and a distinct social menace. Or so they are as a rule in Chatham, in every other county of the state—in this state and in every other state of the cotton and tobacco belt.

2. *The Homes They Live In.* From this point on we group both types of white renters together, because they live on almost exactly the same social level. The differences are trivial and not worth noting. From time to time we deal with the white croppers separately because they are a class occupying a distinctly lower level of existence.

The households of the thirty-eight white renters number 178 souls. The children number 101 and sixty of these are children of school ages. The dwellings they live in are usually of board and timber construction, a few are old log houses, the left-over remains of former days. Six of them let in the weather through the roofs or the floors and walls. Twenty have 203 window lights out and ten have shutters off. In more than half of these dwellings it is possible to study astronomy through the holes in the roof and geology through the cracks in the floor. There is a separate dwelling for each family, and the 38 dwellings are scattered throughout 104 square miles of territory or close to three square miles for every family. There is no lack of elbow-room for family life in this farm area.

On an average these dwellings are thirty years old; nearly half of them have faced the elements for a quarter century or more. Only four have

been built within the last four years. How can farm owners with a gross money income averaging $629 a year build new tenant houses or keep the old houses in proper repair?

Nor is there any lack of elbow space within the tenant dwellings. There are 164 rooms and 147 beds for the 178 occupants. The bed rooms number 124 or more than three per household on an average. Of one-room shacks there are none, and of two-room shanties only four. Eleven dwellings have four rooms each, and fifteen contain from five to six rooms each. These last were the homes of farm owners in by-gone days, now abandoned to tenants. The crowding of humans as in city tenements is a thing unknown in the country regions of the South. Parlors are rare—there are only two in all the thirty-eight dwellings. There are no separate sitting rooms. Bed rooms and sitting rooms are one and the same, and kitchens are invariably used as dining rooms. Only seven of the dwellings are ceiled or plastered, only ten are painted or whitewashed, and only thirteen evidence care on part of the occupants.

But there are signs of family pride and aspirations here and there. One tenant has a washing machine, two have automobiles, two have refrigerators, three have telephones, four have organs, four have victrolas and three have other musical instruments, five have rugs on the floors, nine live in dwellings wholly screened and seven in dwellings partly screened, nine have grass plots about their houses, thirty-one have flower beds, and thirty-five have sewing machines. But in the main, comforts, luxuries and conveniences are sadly lacking in these households—how could they be provided on cash incomes averaging fourteen cents a day per family member?

3. *Health Conditions.* None of the thirty-eight families have running water in their dwellings, thirty-five have wells, all of them over twenty feet deep; ten of these are open and twenty-four are closed; twenty are under the kitchen or the porches or in the yard within thirty feet of the house. Three of the families must bring the daily water supply in oft repeated trips up-hill from springs.

Only eight families have out-door closets, and these are all used by both sexes. None of the out-houses are fly-proof or water-tight, all are open to the poultry and pigs, none are ever cleaned, and three of them are drained toward the water supply. The bushes and the barn lot buildings are the screens of family privacy for thirty homes. Soil pollution by body-waste is the rule here as elsewhere throughout the country regions of the United States.* Kitchen waste in all the dwellings is fed to the hogs in the nearby pens, and on six lots the pens are drained toward the water supply.

A doctor's office is on an average of eight miles away from the homes of these thirty-eight farm tenants. And so only seventeen families called in physicians during the year. Five others called on the doctor in his office. The total paid by twenty-two families to the doctors in fees and to

* Rural Sanitation—Public Health Bulletin No. 94, U. S. Public Health Service, Washington, D. C.

the druggists for prescriptions was $1068 which was an average of $48.64 per family. Thirty-five of the homes spent $219 for patent medicines and nostrums of one sort or another, which is an average of $6 per family. Nearly one-ninth of the total cash incomes of this group of tenants went for illnesses, to say nothing of funeral expenses when the illness ended in death. Seven homes had doctors' bills ranging from $50 to $400 each. In one home the worldly possessions amounted to $218 and the doctors' bill to $75; in another the doctors' bill was $160 or a full third of all the tenant owned on earth; in another the doctors' bill amounted to $400 and the tenant's worldly goods to only $289. No wonder the doctor is called in as seldom as possible and always at the last moment—not because his charges are so large, but because the tenant's ability to pay is so little. And no wonder that all but three of the households rely for the most part on quack remedies and patent medicines. Small cash incomes in farm-owner homes and poverty in tenant homes is the reason why doctors cannot live in the country regions, and why they are fleeing out of the rural counties. If a single doctor had all the tenant practice of these two townships he would have had only $1068 to live on in 1921, supposing he were able to collect every cent of it. Ill health and the cost of it in cash keeps many or most of these tenants poor—hopelessly poor. Solomon was right: verily the destruction of the poor is their poverty. Death is more endurable than sickness in many tenant homes. Said one sad-faced mother who had lost two children in infancy. "I reckon it was a-God's mercy. I didn't have nothing fit ter feed 'em on and no chance ter take care uv 'em."

The children borne by the mothers in these households in the course of a life-time number 148. Forty-seven of these children are dead. Eighteen were born dead, eleven died during the first year, and six during the first five years. Twenty-seven of the mothers were delivered by doctors, five by white midwives, one by a negro midwife, and five were unattended in child-birth save by the panic-stricken members of the households. Only one-eighth of all the children were delivered by midwives—a most surprising discovery. Most people have an idea that midwives play a larger part in the country regions. Only four of the thirty-eight tenant mothers have ever received the literature of the State Department of Public Health, and these four are the daughters-in-law of home-owning farmers. Six households have had no medical examination of their children at school and no reports of their physical defects. Not one of all the 178 members of these tenant households has ever been vaccinated against smallpox or typhoid fever. Disease prevention and health promotion are little considered in farm tenant homes.

Two things stand out in this field study. First, the virility of the men, the fecundity of the women, and the amazing grip on life of our tenant populations. The signs of physical degeneracy are rare in the area surveyed. Our renters are a coming not a disappearing element of population in the South. All they need is a decent chance; and when we say this, we have in mind the renters, not the croppers, who represent the

bottom-most levels of life in our farm regions. And second, the prevalence of sickness of one sort or another—the result not of insufficient food, quantities considered, but of unvaried, ill-balanced diets, and untutored ways of cooking and serving meals. Disordered digestion and defective teeth are the common causes of chronic morbidity; soil pollution and fly-borne diseases are the major causes of mortality. Or so we came to conclude.

4. *Schools and School Influences.* For the white children of these two townships there are seven public schools. Six are one-teacher schools of elementary grade, open for only six months of the year, usually in the fall and winter months when the demand for work in the fields is least. One is a five-teacher school at Bynum, a little cotton mill village of some forty-odd dwellings. Here the children have a chance at two years of high-school subjects—their only chance at such schooling in these two townships. For more they must go into other townships or counties. All the elementary schools in the open country are housed in buildings that are old and weather-stained. None of them have been built within the last twenty years. They are taught for the most part by young girls in their teens or by young women born in Chatham or in the neighboring counties. All the teachers have had schooling in high school subjects, four have had some schooling in college subjects, but none are college graduates. The rule is a new teacher in each school every year, because the teacher is dissatisfied with the school conditions of the district or because the people of the district are dissatisfied with the teacher. Exceptions to this rule are few from year to year. The schools and country roads are so inadequate that the people are strongly minded to petition the legislature to annex their territory to Durham county where school and road funds are more abundant. As a result the Chatham school board offers to replace the six small country schools next year with three consolidated schools, two in Williams and one in Baldwin. The country people are strongly in favor of larger, better schools, but they are finding it difficult to agree upon the locations of the consolidated schools proposed.

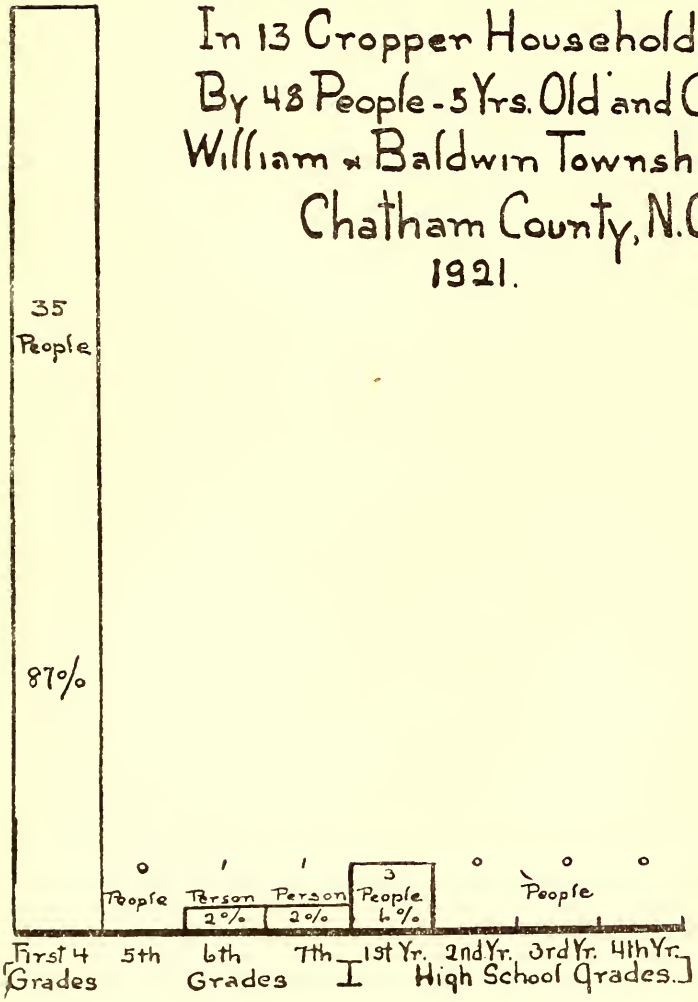
The inadequate school advantages of this area have left their marks upon the fifty-one tenant households. One hundred and seventy-three of the occupants are more than ten years of age, and sixteen of them are unable to read or write, which is an illiteracy ratio of 9.2 percent, against a state average of 8.2 percent.

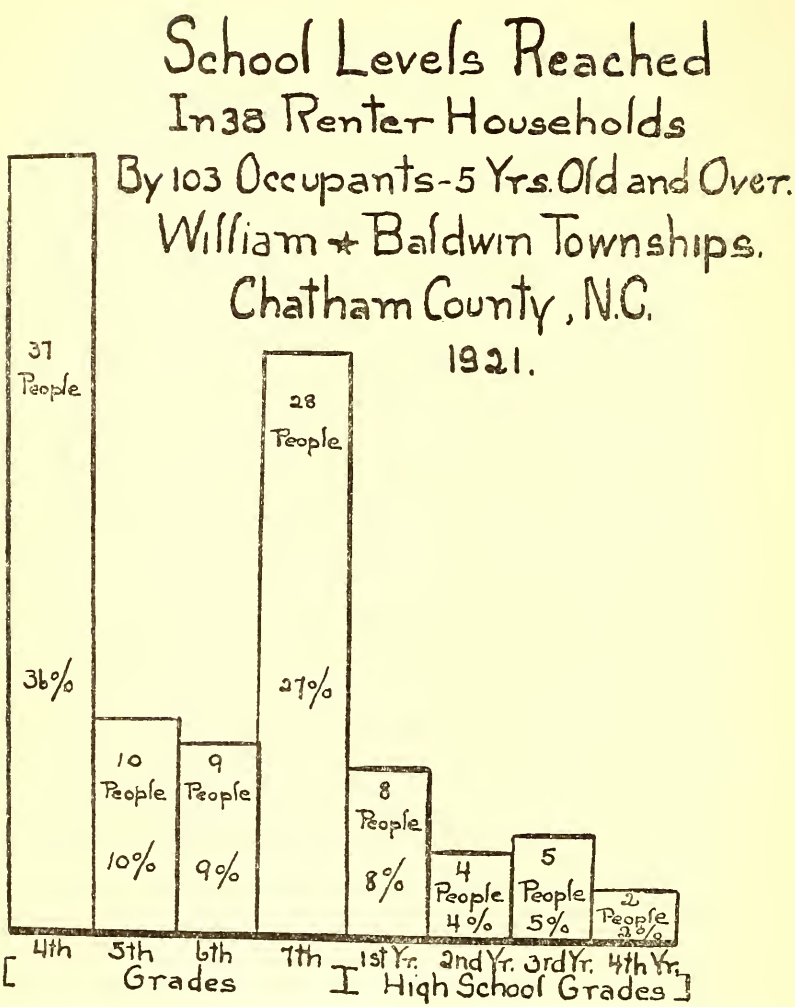
One or more illiterates were found in six families. Thirteen of the sixteen were found in three families. These are the families in which illiteracy reigns. In two families are seventeen people ten years of age and over, and ten of them are illiterate. The extreme case is one cropper family with six in the household; five are ten years old or over and three are illiterate. Nobody in this household belongs to the church, and nobody goes to Sunday school. It is the excessive number of illiterates in these three families that smudges the score of the two townships. But for these and one illiterate each in three other families it could be said that there is no

white illiteracy in Baldwin and Williams townships. There is none whatsoever in forty-five of the fifty-one tenant familes.

The school levels of the thirty-eight renter families are significant of the culture of this tenancy area. There are 103 people in these households seven years old and over. Thirty-seven have reached only one or another of the first four grades; ten got only as far as the fifth grade; nine got only into the sixth grade; and twenty-eight reached the seventh grade. Only nineteen or around a fifth of them all have ever had any acquaintance with high school subjects. For nearly exactly half of the renter households, school culture may be said to stop on a fifth reader level. Eight people in these households have had only one year of high school instruction, four reached the second high school grade, five dropped out in the third year, and only two were graduated. There is no member of any tenant household in all this area who ever went to college or ever received a college diploma.

The record of the thirteen white cropper households is even more significant. There are forty people in these families seven years old and over, but only five have ever gone beyond the first four grades of school. One got as far as the sixth grade, one as far as the seventh grade, and three got into the first year of high school subjects. For nine-tenths of the cropper families life stops on a fourth reader level. The contrast between the school culture of renters and croppers appears at a glance in the charts that follow.


School Levels Reached.
In 13 Cropper Households
By 48 People - 5 Yrs. Old and Over
William & Baldwin Townships.
Chatham County, N.C.
1921.
35 People
87%
0 People
1 Person 2%
1 Person 2%
3 People 6%
0
0 People
0
First 4 Grades
5th
6th Grades
7th
1st Yr.
2nd Yr.
3rd Yr.
4th Yr.
High School Grades.



The country regions furnish three-fourths of the college professors and five-sixths of all the preachers of America, says Ashenhurst; but in North Carolina they are born and bred in the homes of farm owners, not in the homes of farm tenants. There may be exceptions, but they could not be brought to light by the research questionnaires of Rev. J. M. Arnette, a Baptist minister applying for a doctorate degree from the University of North Carolina. His conclusion is that the farm tenant homes of this state give no preachers to the churches of his faith, or so few as to be negligible in the total count of Baptist clergymen. We definitely know

that farm tenancy raises the ratios of white illiteracy and lowers the ratios of white church membership with fatal certainty in the South. Does it also blow out the light in the souls of our white tenants? If so, farm tenancy ought to probe to the quick of the intelligence and Christian conscience of church authorities and church members, for the sixty-three thousand white tenant households of North Carolina contain nearly one-fifth of the entire white population of the state.

5. *What Farm Tenants Read.* The thirty-eight tenant households subscribe for newspapers and magazines, receive free public bulletins, and own books as follows:

12 families subscribe for a country weekly each.
12 families subscribe for a farm paper each.
9 families subscribe for popular magazines, 14 in number.
6 families subscribe for church papers, seven in number.
5 families subscribe for a daily paper each.
38 families have each a Bible and an almanac.
0 families subscribe for children's papers or magazines.
4 families receive the State Public Health Bulletin.
0 families receive any other bulletins—from any state department, or any state college.
13 families have all told 153 children's books including school books.
14 families have 38 religious books, mainly songbooks.
3 families have 43 novels.
34 families have 473 volumes of various other sorts, mail order catalogues, reports, old medical books, law books, etc., most of these in three families.
0 families have any books on agriculture or country life.
0 families borrow books from school or other public libraries.
2 families have no books but the Bible.

The bulk of the papers, magazines, books and bulletins are in the homes of thirteen tenants on family lands who have inherited the traditions of family culture in farm-owner homes. Seven self-help tenants and five croppers subscribe to newspapers and have a few books in their homes —one of these, a goodly number of books. Twenty-six or more than half of the fifty-one tenant homes are bare of books, papers, and magazines. The wonder is not that so few but that so many books, papers, and magazines reach these farm tenant homes. The 153 books for the children are the bright particular spot in these homes. One hundred and fifty-three children's books would not long keep alive the sixty youngsters of reading ages in thirty-eight homes, but we dare to say that they play a large part in making country life endurable.

The country weekly leads the list of newspapers, here as everywhere else in the state, and advertisers may like to note this fact—that is, if they want to reach the people who have a minimum of pin money to spend.

Church papers come fourth in the order of frequency, and the editors of church papers may like to note that fact. Farm tenants crave country

weeklies, farm papers, and popular magazines more than they crave the religious journals of North Carolina.

Aside from the Bible, the books in these homes are miscellaneous volumes, children's books, novels, and religious books, named in a descending order of numbers. No book on agriculture was found in any tenant home, and in one cropper home no Bible.

The state departments and the state institutions may like to note that aside from four homes receiving the State Health Bulletins, they are reaching none of these tenant homes with official literature. If they have an idea that their extension activities are covering North Carolina like the dew, they are mistaken. There is an immense work for them all to do in field services to the people of the state. The homes of the white renters are beyond their efforts at present in this area; and even more the homes of the white croppers. The chances are these facts are statewide, and that the 317,000 people in white farm tenant homes are receiving no benefit or almost none from their extension efforts.

6. *Churches and Church Influences.* Next to the home which is everywhere the strongest social group in country civilization, the country church stands out as the most important social institution—in this territory, in the state, and in the South in general.

Eight churches of three denominations serve the 1700 white inhabitants of Baldwin and Williams townships. Seven have preaching once-a-month and usually in rotation. All but two of the preachers serving these eight churches are non-residents, living in other communities or counties. Only one preacher in the active ministry and only one retired minister are living in this territory.

As in Orange, the country church buildings evidence pride and care. All but one were painted once-upon-a-time. The window lights are in, the blinds are on, the interiors are swept and dusted, the buildings are locked between preaching events, the grounds and graveyards are in order, and are kept so by the memorial day clean-up that features the country church year in mid-state Carolina, or such is the general appearance of all but one of the country churches. The dwellings of a country region in mid-state North Carolina may look dilapidated, but not the country church buildings as a rule.

Preaching in the different churches makes every Sunday of the month a social occasion for all the people, and everybody or almost everybody goes to church. It is the event of the week. The great event of the year is the revival or protracted meeting when crops are laid-by in the fall and the whole countryside turns out. Unhappily these church-recruiting occasions often conflict in dates. The church that offers the greatest excitement draws the largest crowds. The indifferent and the openly irreligious come out to the church at protracted meeting times. Even the bootleggers fringe the out-skirts of the crowds and not infrequently ply their trade within the curtilage of the churches.

The rest of the year the households go to the church of their own faith on one Sunday; the other Sundays of the month they mingle with the

congregations of other creeds, with a steadily decreasing sense of church differences. We'd all belong to one and the same church if it wasn't for the preachers, said one farmer with a twinkle in his eye. The families of farm owners, renters and croppers meet and mingle on a common level on Sundays; they freely exchange invitations to the basket dinners of the family groups on the church grounds on big occasions; and on the whole in this area the country churches are unifying rather than separating social influences.

Are these churches reaching and serving the tenants? This was the main inquiry of the church section of our survey schedule. The answer is, Yes, in the main—church attendance considered.

It is the rule in this corner of Chatham for every family to hitch-up or crank-up and go to church on Sundays—to the church of its own faith on one Sunday of the month and to other churches within reach on other Sundays. Preaching is the event of the week. It is the one chance for social intercourse, for talk about crops and candidates by the men and about babies and household ailments by the women. It is the rule of every renter family of both types—the kinsman and the self-help tenants almost without exception. The farm-owning families attend church no better than the renters, and there are no discoverable class differences here or elsewhere in this tenancy area.

But just as we expected, the thirteen white cropper families lag behind in church attendance. Four of these families or nearly a third of them all are habitually absent from church. No way to go, church too far away, no clothes, they say. In three families the fathers had the smell of corn whiskey on their breath when our surveyor talked with them, and the entire households were manifestly below the level of the neighborhood.

So much for church attendance. The Sunday school is another story. Of the fifty-one tenant families, thirteen go to church but not to Sunday school, four families more attend neither Sunday school nor church, and these four families are croppers. Thirty-four percent of the renter households and seventy-nine percent of the cropper households are not in Sunday school.

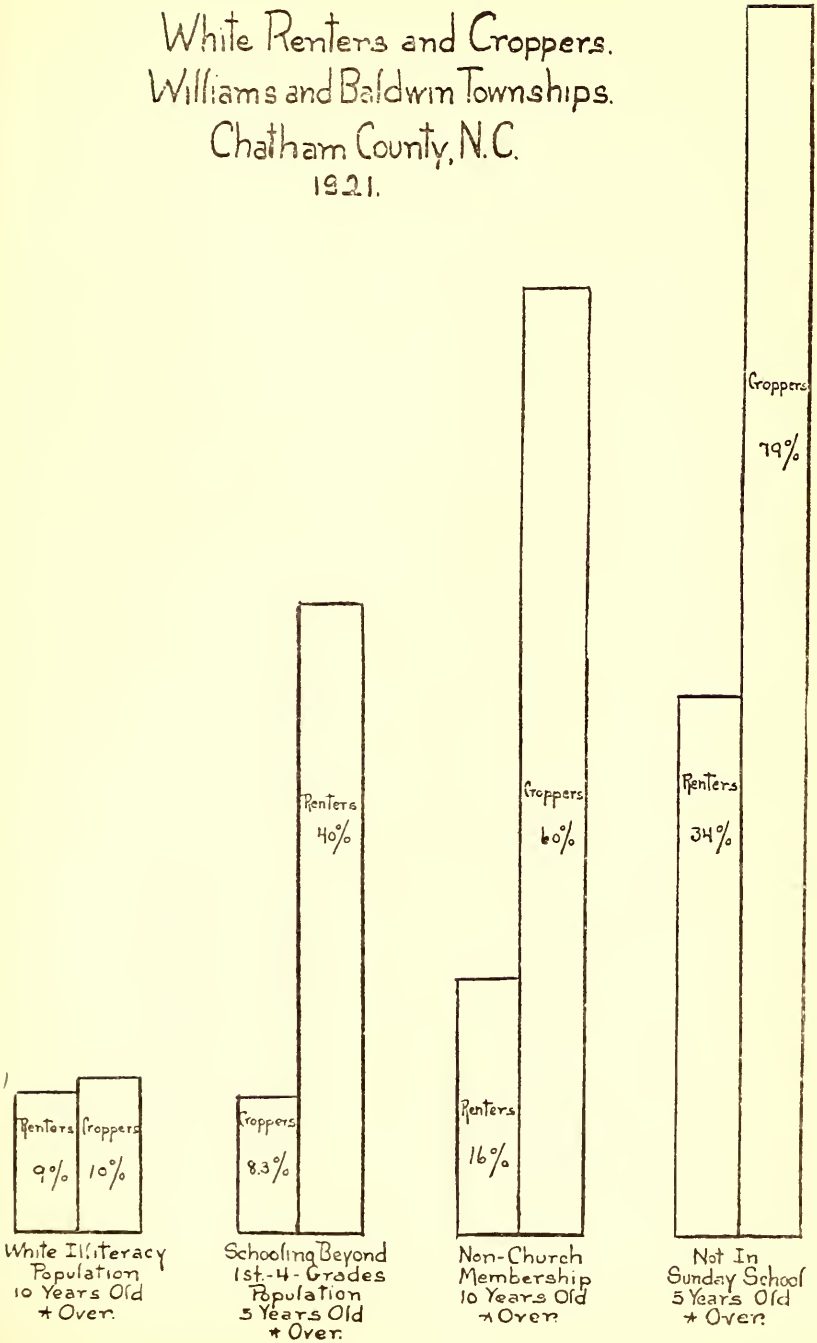
The Sunday school which ought to be the strongest phase of religious organization is the weakest. Here as elsewhere it fails to reach the humbler homes—the homes of the croppers in particular.

Tenant Church Membership. Turning from church attendance to church membership the tabulation is as follows:

HOUSEHOLDS	Occupants	Ten years old and over	Non Church members	Pct. Church members
25 Kinsman renters	178	83	13	86
13 Selp-help renters	71	50	8	84
13 Croppers	72	40	24	40

It will be noted that church membership in white tenant families in this territory is in direct ratio to property ownership, stable residence, and community identity. Here is the reason why three-fifths of the cropper

households are outside the church, and four-fifths of them outside the Sunday schools. The highest ratios of church membership are in renter households, and the lowest iu cropper households. The renter households are 22 and 24 poiuts above the state average of church membership, and the cropper households are 22 points below it. And it must not be forgotten that one of every ten people in these white cropper households, ten years old and over, is illiterate, and that nearly nine times out of ten his education ends with the fourth school grade. Here as elsewhere in the South a high illiteracy ratio in white tenancy areas means a low church membership ratio, for two reasons: first, it is embarrassing not to be able to read the hymns, and to sing with the rest of the cougregation; and second, illiterate white croppers have little or no money to put into the contribution boxes, and "where we kaint pay we don't go," as one renter expressed it. White farm tenancy in the South breeds poverty, poverty breeds illiteracy, aud together these three social conditions are deadly menaces to the country church. Besides, they remove beyond the reach of the church the very people who most need its ministrations, or so as a rule.


White Renters and Croppers.
Williams and Baldwin Townships.
Chatham County, N.C.
1921.
Renters
9%
Croppers
10%
White Illiteracy
Population
10 Years Old
+ Over.
Croppers
8.3%
Renters
40%
Schooling Beyond
1st.-4-Grades
Population
5 Years Old
+ Over.
Renters
16%
Croppers
60%
Non-Church
Membership
10 Years Old
+ Over.
Renters
34%
Croppers
79%
Not In
Sunday School
5 Years Old
+ Over.

7. *Social Occasions and Contacts.* The three hundred and twenty-nine families of Baldwin and Williams townships—the owners and tenants of both races—are scattered throughout 104 square miles of territory. Whites and blacks are nearly equal in number, and their farms are small, averaging less than thirty cultivated acres each. They dwell in solitary farmsteads with wide spaces between, and farming is by nature a solitary business. The unit of economic production is the family, and the father is the over-lord of the group, in the ancient patriarchal fashion of family life. He may not have his legs under his own table, as the Danes say, but where he sits is the head of it, and nobody in the family is in doubt about it. Such is the type of rural family life in Chatham county, the State, and the South as a whole.

Within family groups in the country regions autocracy is the rule; between family groups democracy is the unquestioned order. The farmer is the best in his own group and accounts himself equal to the best in any other farm group. So it is in the rural civilization of almost all the countries of the new world. In almost all old-world countries the farmers dwell together in farm villages, and the extremes of individualism are softened by the intimate social contacts and the common concerns of hamlet households.

As a result American farmers are bred to think privately and locally in terms of the family and the neighborhood. They do not easily think in terms of the community and the commonwealth. The private-local mind of the farmer in the South is the ultimate obstacle to country community life and coöperative farm enterprise; also it is the ultimate problem in county government and in commonwealth development.

What, then, are the influences that tend to mitigate the overweening, unadjusted individualism of farm life in the field of this survey? What are the occasions that bring families together—in particular the families of tenant households? And what contacts do they have with the outside world?

Our study discloses the social aloofness of the farm tenant—the great distances to town centers, until recently in Chatham the absence of improved public highways, the rarity of telephones and motor cars—there are only two of each in fifty-one tenant homes, the fourth and fifth grade levels and limits of school culture in a majority of the families, the small average number of household newspapers, magazines, and books. The epoch-making events of the big wide world break in tiny ripples on the far distant shores of farm tenant lives only after many days—here and everywhere else in the South.

Social contacts and social occasions in the tenant households of this territory consist mainly of the inter-family affairs and events of the local church and school neighborhoods. In the order of frequency they are (1) preaching days in the country churches and commencement occasions in the country schools, (2) mutual visits between the homes of owners and tenants of each race on the basis of democratic equality—assumptions of family superiority are almost unknown, (3) the neighborly exchange of

labor in pinches produced by seasonal stresses—plowing, harvesting, threshing, corn shucking seasons and the like, (4) dogs, guns, and hunting parties—in these fifty-one tenant households there are fifty guns and forty-six dogs, (5) picnics which are usually school events, (6) holiday occasions and neighborhood gatherings, mainly during the Christmas season—parties or sociables as they are called, (7) occasional neighborhood fairs, usually at the school buildings, (8) other events—barbecues, opossum suppers and so on. The most common entry in the schedule blanks is "visiting, talking, telling jokes, hunting, fishing, eating, watermelons."

Practically everybody goes to church, every household hunts and fishes, and every family but one exchanges visits. The tenant families that have no part in the inter-family life of this territory are as follows: sixteen exchanged no labor during the year, eighteen attended no picnics, six took no part in holiday events, twenty-nine attended no sociables, and forty-two stayed away from the infrequent neighborhood fairs. No family attended a circus, and only one looked in at a film picture in the run of the year. Nowhere did we find a trace of dancing as a neighborhood event.

Children's plays around the home are primitive and in twenty-one homes they are altogether absent. Base, tag, dog-on-wood, hide-and-seek, cat, ball-over, stick-it-to-him, pitching horse-shoes, marbles, dolls, mud pies, riding sticks, red bugs, gully bugs, jack-in-the-bush, checkers, and rook are the home games of country children in this territory—dolls in only one tenant family, checkers in one, and rook in two. No cards were in evidence anywhere; but also Mother Goose is everywhere unknown. The home groups are too small for lively fun among the young people, and the one-teacher schools are too small to develop the values of team-play. Besides, the unconscious assumption is that children are born to work not to play. In listing for us the children's games in the various homes, one tenant housewife said with spirit, "I wants you to understand that we works hereabouts; we ain't no sportin neighborhood." There is abundant seasonal leisure in farm tenant homes, but no leisure-time philosophy of life. Salvation for young people lies in work, and getting together for a good time is an evidence of mortal sin of some sort.

And such is the unconscious assumption of the country churches. In no instance did we find any evidence that they were concerned about wholesome recreation in the countryside. Not social affairs in this world but salvation in the next world is the core of religious consciousness in our country regions. Rural religion is not annointed with "the oil of gladness" that David prayed for. Fun and frolic are tolerated with qualms of conscience or viewed with vague suspicion as essentially evil. And so the country church resigns country recreation to the Devil and all his works.

Life in solitary farmsteads, a few to the square mile, in the vast open spaces of America, is in itself a denial of a primary social instinct—the craving for companionship, and the farm family group fails to satisfy this craving. As a result, lonesomeness alone plays a large part in the cityward drift of country populations; it plays the largest part in the

exodus of farm boys and girls in their teens. There has been a steady movement of country people out of Baldwin and Williams townships for thirty years; since 1890 the population of Baldwin had dwindled from 2068 to 1439, and Williams has dropped from 2760 inhabitants to 1517. More than a third of all the people of these two townships have moved out in a single generation. Soon or late, a steady decrease in population produces static or stagnant social areas. Such is the net result of economic and social disadvantages, of life and livelihood under uninspiring or dispiriting influences; and in the last analysis it is social disabilities that destroy values of every sort, economic, civic and religious alike—farm values and incomes, store business and profits, neighborhood life and enterprise, community morals, law and order, county government efficiency and church development. Such are the pressing issues of existence for farmers and storekeepers, teachers and preachers to consider in Baldwin and Williams townships. More and better roads, better market facilities, larger cash incomes, more efficient schools and churches, more books, newspapers and magazines, greater attention to sanitation and hygiene, a braver attitude toward community morals, law and order, and a more intimate acquaintance with county office affairs—such are the foundations of a fuller life in the territory surveyed in Chatham county.

8. *Civic Consciousness.* But there are comforting signs of intelligent appreciation of the way-out in Baldwin and Williams townships. The straw ballot taken in the fifty-one tenant households shows that only seven of the ninety-nine voters were opposed to consolidated schools, only three were opposed to coöperative marketing, road bonds, or 'book farming,' only two thought college education a waste of time, and only two considered themselves free, white, and twenty-one and privileged to do as they pleased without regard to morals, law and order. And mark this—of these ninety-nine voters, seventy-two are in the habit of voting regularly.

Nineteen voters expressed positive, definite opinions about community needs, and in the main they were intelligent opinions. The other eighty voters had no opinions—had never thought about such matters, they said. The unthinking and the unconcerned were the vast majority—but of such is the Kingdom of Democracy in free America.

III

Helping Tenants into Farm Ownership

The fifty-one white tenants are nearly a third of all the white farmers in this territory, and the 102 negro tenants are nearly three-fourths of all the negro farmers. Ideally it is desirable for these landless farmers to own the land they cultivate. Civilization is rooted and grounded in the home-owning, home-loving, home-defending instincts. Nobody doubts this fundamental fact. But what is ideally desirable is not always actually possible, human nature considered. All these landless men need help, but not all of them can be helped. Many of them with judicious assistance could rise into farm ownership and effective citizenship; others in large

numbers could not be settled down in stable property ownership of any sort by the angel Gabriel himself; as they now are, an outright gift of forty acres and a mule would avail them little more than the manna sent down from Heaven availed the Children of Israel.

Who Can Be Helped: (1) With rare exceptions, not many of the white croppers can be helped into farm ownership. They are a fourth of all the white tenants in Chatham, in the State, and in the South. In North Carolina they number 16,575 families, and in the main they are satisfied with their landless estate. The upward look into farm ownership is absent. As a rule they are handicapped by a lack of the homeowning virtues, namely (1) steady-gaited industry, (2) thrift which is the combined result of prudential foresight and hardy self-denial, (3) sagacity or the ability to think things through to wise conclusions, (4) sobriety or freedom from the use of intoxicating liquors, and (5) integrity—reliability, a sense of moral obligations, trustworthiness, and the like essential qualities of character. Lacking these home-owning virtues or the will to develop them, no man on any level of life is likely to acquire property in land or to hold it inviolate. The hopeful white croppers are few but these few ought to be helped. We estimate their number to be two in Baldwin and Williams townships and 800 in the state-at-large. The ratio of hopefulness is right around one-twentieth of all the white croppers of the state. But while little can be done for the adults in cropper households, surely much can be done for the swarms of bright-faced children, before they are hardened by the conditions in hopeless homes. What can be done for them is a problem for day teachers, Sunday-school teachers and preachers, home and farm demonstration agents, university and state college extension services. Here is the most insistent home mission problem in North Carolina and the South.

(2) The tenant group that offers the largest chance for effective outside aid is the group of self-help renters—so called because they have struggled into the ownership of workstock, farm tools and implements, household goods and utensils, by self-effort alone, without the advantage of kith and kin relationships to their landlords, and without the hope of acquiring farms by inheritance, gift or marriage. This group is one-fourth of all the white tenants in Baldwin and Williams townships, and the chances are that this ratio is approximately true in the state-at-large. Which means some 16,600 farm families. Many of these could safely be lifted into the ownership of farms by judicious outside aid; but not all, indeed not many more than one-ninth of them all, say 2,000 all told. I say one-ninth because numerous field studies at the State University, and in various centers of research the world over of late years, show that something like nine of every ten people live from hand to mouth, consume all they produce, spend all they make, and drop inevitably into debt in sudden emergencies.

(3) The kinsman tenants, the tenants whose landlords are fathers, uncles, fathers-in-law, and others closely related by blood or marriage ties, are one-half of all the white tenants in Baldwin and Williams townships,

and probably in the state-at-large. For them the way ahead into ownership is usually open, by inheritance, gift or marriage or by purchase on favorable terms. As a class they need not be considered in any policy of state-aid to farm ownership. What they need is mainly (1) the will to be home-owning farmers on the twenty-two million idle acres held by their kinspeople in North Carolina, and (2) farm prosperity sufficient to allow the accumulation of capital enough to equip their farms with more and better livestock, tools and machinery.

State-Aid to Land Ownership

To recapitulate: the white tenants in North Carolina who possibly might be helped into farm ownership are 800 croppers and 2,000 self-help renters, or 2,800 of the 32,000 white tenants of these two classes in the state. State-aid policies would be directly aimed at some 2,800 white tenant families and figured accordingly, to say nothing of some 1,400 worthy negro tenants. At the present average of current market prices for farm land in North Carolina, these 2,800 white tenants could be settled down on forty-acre farms of their own for $1000 apiece, or $2,800,000 all told.

Where are these millions to come from? From the state treasury as an outright gift? Not possibly so. There is no surplus there—nor ever likely to be—for landless farmers however worthy. And not desirably so, even if there were such treasury surpluses. State-aid to landless farmers, if considered at all, must be considered as a straight-out business proposition, and conducted from first to last as a solvent business enterprise not as a charity. It must not be a burden on the taxpayers of the state. It must not raise anybody's taxes by so much as a single cent, to pay either principal or interest. But while the state has no money to lend, it has credit in abundance, and this is what could be loaned to the worthy landless farmers of North Carolina as a state investment in character; and loaned not on the basis of state bonds of the kind we have heretofore issued but on the basis of debenture bonds issued by the state and protected by titles to the land bought for land settlement purposes and sold to the settlers. Not state bonds but debenture bonds issued by an authorized state agency and underwritten by the state is the business form of the proposition. What we are indicating is the California way, and there is no other way worth considering in North Carolina, in our opinion. The details in California appear in full in Helping Men to Own Farms, a small volume written by Dr. Elwood Mead of the University of California, executive secretary of the State Land Settlement Board, and the social engineer of the successful farm colonies established at Durham and Delhi. Our legislators and thoughtful students of essential commonwealth concerns in general in North Carolina are referred to this book. Twenty copies of it are on the shelves of the seminar library of the department of rural social-economics at Chapel Hill and will be loaned without charge upon request. We therefore limit our treatment of a state-aid policy to the few words of these brief paragraphs.

But before passing on to consider the Self-Help Agencies that already exist in North Carolina to serve capable ambitious tenants, we want to direct attention to the three essential values of the California Plan. First, it settles small farmers in farm communities and bases the marketing of farm products on community coöperation. Second, it costs the state nothing but capable faithful attention on part of its executive agency. Of the initial $260,000 set aside in 1918 by the legislature $118,000 has already been paid back, and the million dollars of debenture bonds authorized are not only fully covered by the land titles held, but the bonds are being paid off by the farmers, capital and interest, in amortized payments running through thirty-odd years. The plan of state-credit loans is so successful that the Board itself opposes any further aid by the state legislature. Third, the success of the plan has demonstrated that the private owners of large landed estates can use the business way of it to bring their idle, wilderness acres into cultivation with clear advantage to the settlers and with guaranteed profits to the land barons. The Settlement Board is therefore establishing no other colonies, but is devoting itself to the larger policy of schooling the owners of large estates in the business details of a complex plan, and to training social engineers of all sorts to act as efficient agents of private capital employed in establishing private colonies of home-owning farmers. In other words, what the state cannot do, as a large public enterprise, the private owners of large estates are now clamoring to do on their own initiative as a private business venture of demonstrated success. Showing the how of the thing is what California has done, and done at almost no expense to the state.

The initial $260,000 authorized by the California legislature for administrative purposes would be a needlessly large sum in North Carolina. So because we do not have California's problem of leveling, ditching and irrigating desert wastes. Fifty thousand dollars would probably be sufficient to enable a Land Settlement Board in this state to effect an organization, to inventory the problem, to define the engineering difficulties, and to indicate the necessary engineering staff. And we may add that the difficulties are mainly technical engineering difficulties—business engineering, production and distribution engineering, and social engineering for farm community life, as well as civil engineering in the preparation of farm land for immediate productiveness. When the Board is ready for the business of this public enterprise, direct state appropriations cease, because the administration cost is transferred to the overhead account of a solvent business. Or so it was in California, and so it could be in North Carolina. Business ability and selfless public servants are not confined to California alone. We have these in abundance in North Carolina. Unhappily we do not have an Elwood Mead to call into the executive direction of Board policies and details. There ought to be ten thousand Elwood Meads, for upon men of his sort the success of such public enterprises mainly and finally depends.

State-aided farm colonies in North Carolina is a question that ought to be thoroughly debated before final decisive action is voted, and in-

telligent popular support must be aroused or the policy will fail if adopted. Moreover such a plan must be characterized by freedom from class-legislation. It must open the way into land ownership for both races alike. Negro tenants need such aid less than white tenants, because under prevailing conditions they are acquiring farms of their own faster than the whites are doing in every southern state. The explanation of this fact is exhibited in full in The Human Way, a little volume published by the Southern Sociological Society, and in The University News Letter, Vol. VIII, No. 37.

Perhaps the wisest approach to state-aided landownership would be through a state commission charged with threshing out the problem in North Carolina and reporting a feasible policy to the legislature two years hence.

Self-Helping Agencies and Qualities

But whether or not the state adopt California's policy of state-aid for landless farmers, there are existing agencies of help for sturdy, capable, ambitious tenants. Our country banks, for instance, more or less actively encourage the thrifty by offering four percent interest on bank account savings. The thrifty souls of the state have more than a hundred million dollars in these institutions. If all our banks were as busy in behalf of the farmers as the First National Bank of Tarboro, the total of bank account savings in North Carolina could be quickly doubled.

Next we have our coöperative farm credit unions. They number twenty-nine at present, or more than in all the rest of the United States put together. They could be greatly increased in number and effectiveness if only the state authorities directly charged with coöperative enterprise were properly bent upon realizing the intent of our coöperative credit union law—the best law on this subject in the whole United States. Our credit unions have largely failed of their purposes, because even more largely our state authorities have failed to see the need of such agencies in North Carolina and the potent part they might play in training farmers in the essentials of self-helping farm finance.

And next, our building and loan associations. They are more numerous, more active, and more prosperous in the towns and cities of North Carolina than in any other Southern state; but they need to be greatly increased in number, membership, and resources, and to extend their operations beyond town centers into the surrounding country regions, as in Ohio. A law already on our statute book authorizes this extension into farm areas, but our town needs are at present too great and our building and loan resources are too small to leave any surpluses to lend aspiring worthy farmers. If we can keep alive for a long term of years the B-and-L interest developed in North Carolina during the last twelve months, we can easily top the list of states in the ratio of dwellings owned by occupants. As it is, only one state stands ahead of us in this essential particular.

These are all self-help agencies, but they avail the thrifty alone. Many are called into the ownership of homes and farms, but only the thrifty are chosen.

Aside from these collateral social agencies, the way into landownership lies open to farmers endowed with sagacity—with what the farmers call hard horse-sense. Sagacity is the ability to think things through to safe conclusions. It is a personal quality that is fast developing into a social asset of farm community life and effort in North Carolina. Applied to farming it concerns (1) money crops produced on a bread-and-meat basis; (2) it concerns the distribution of farm wealth by the farmers themselves in coöperative marketing associations; (3) it concerns more and better meat and milk animals, a greater diversity of money products in commercial quantities, and a better balanced system of farming in the state at large; (4) it concerns farm industries—creameries, condenseries, and cheese factories, peanut cleaneries and peanut products, sweet potatoes prepared and stored for marketing throughout the twelve months, pork products—sausage, bacon, hams, shoulders, and the like—for sale by farm organizations in nearby or distant markets, as in Denmark, fruit packing and conserving plants, and so on and on. In every field of human effort—in farming, foresting, and mining alike—the direct producers of crude wealth are always at the bottom of the economic scale; it is the producers of finished products fit for final consumption, and the handlers of these products who get the bulk of the consumer's dollar.

It was sagacity applied to farming that devised Wisconsin's way out of bankruptcy in the eighteen eighties, and it must devise North Carolina's way out of farm poverty in the nineteen twenties. Otherwise the wealth that farmers produce will forever fail to stick to the palms that sweat it out. To the farmer that hath sagacity shall be added, and from him that hath it not, shall be taken away even that which he hath. This law of spiritual wealth works with the same fateful certainty in the field of economic enterprise, in town and country regions alike. Brain-sweaters have always lorded it over the back-sweaters. Education is the fundamental agency of progress, but the education that ripens into sagacity is at bottom the tenant's only chance, no matter what social or civic agencies lie at hand to help him. No matter what organic and statute laws may exist, they exist in vain for tenants who lack sagacity. With all their getting they must get what Solomon called wisdom and understanding, and it must be applied to farm production, farm distribution, farm wealth accumulation, and farm civilization in general.

The Place of Legislation

Nevertheless there is a proper place for legislative action in behalf of individual and social efforts at progress. Laws are like the retaining walls and the overhead arch in a tunnel through a sand bed—they support and preserve the results of progressive social enterprise. The tunnel would be impossible without the walls and the arch, and the walls and the arch would be useless without the tunnel. So it is in social progress of any

sort. For instance, coöperation as a form of business organization did not exist in law in any state of the Union twenty years ago. A corporation was a well defined legal entity and term, but a coöperation in any legal sense did not exist. And without legal definition, sanction, and supervision, a coöperative enterprise based (1) on the one-man-one-vote principle of control and (2) on dividends rated on business done through the organization as well as on stock owned, could not operate with either advantage or safety. Coöperating farmers were liable to indictment in the courts. They could be arrested as lawbreakers and tried as criminals are tried; they actually were so arrested and tried here and there in the United States. Coöperation law is just as necessary as corporation law.

And the same thing is true of credit law and credit institutions. Credit is ability and willingness to pay what is due exactly when it is due. It is the combined result of collateral and character. Every man—farmer, merchant, manufacturer, whatnot—creates his own credit; it is law that creates and regulates credit institutions. It is the business of borrowers to furnish collateral; it is the business of credit institutions to furnish accommodation. What is needed is (1) long-term credit accommodation for farm collateral offered for long-term loans at low rates of interest, and Congress has created land banks and other credit agencies to meet this particular need of the farmers. Congress alone is able to create such credit institutions on the large scale necessary. Federal Land Banks exist but they exist in vain for farmers who cannot offer proper collateral. They require farm land as collateral, and they serve land-owning farmers not landless tenants. Less than five percent of all the millions loaned by the federal land banks has gone to the landless tenants of the United States. What the best of tenants have is character and they have little else.

What worthy farm tenants need (2) is banks that capitalize character, and extend accommodation in personal-security loans in small amounts at low rates of interest running throughout the farm year. The coöperative credit union is the credit machinery that meets this need. It is sanctioned by law in some seventeen states but it has failed to develop into large proportions in country areas under state promotion, guidance and auditing supervision—even in North Carolina where its development shows the greatest progress in the Union. It is almost the sole hope of intelligent, industrious, and thrifty tenant farmers—of some 2,800 worthy white tenants and some 1,400 worthy negro tenants in North Carolina. Farm credit unions are a demonstrated success in every country of Europe; they are a failure in every state of America. What the states have failed to accomplish for landless men, the federal government must undertake, and it needs to be undertaken promptly on a large scale. Law cannot create collateral in goods and services, but it can create the machinery of credit accommodation, adjusted and administered to meet the peculiar needs of both tenants and landowning farmers. There is still much to be done in the field of farm credit institutions, if farm owners are to thrive. and if farm tenants are to have a decent chance to rise into ownership.

Other Obstacles to Ownership

In addition to the meager or the minus money returns to farming as a business in average years, there are certain obstacles in law and custom that paralyze the farmowner's interest in agriculture, and at the same time stifle the tenant's wish to own a farm. Farming don't pay, Ain't no money in it, If I own a farm I get taxed to death, The farmer's got no chance, I can make more money in a cotton mill, I can make more money doin a-most anything or nothing at all in town—these are the opinions we ran into in the farm tenant homes of Chatham county. They give expression to vaguely sensed facts. They are hard facts that exist in the country regions of Chatham county, North Carolina, and the Nation. And they are facts that must be reckoned with, or the day draws near when America will be asking, What shall we eat and wherewithal shall we be clothed? Already we are asking, What shall we do with the farm bloc in Congress and the agrarian revolt in general?

1. The fundamental obstacle to land ownership lies in the common law meaning of property. It is a meaning essentially negative. It is based on protection for the owner against the use of his own, without his free consent, by anybody else. It implies no positive obligation on part of the owner to make any use of it himself. It is hardly thinkable that the term could have any other meaning when applied to personal property, but when applied to property in land it has a dog-in-the-manger meaning that imperils the safety of civilization, or so it begins to appear. By what essential right human or divine may a man retain the possession of land that he will not or cannot put to productive uses? He has that right in common law, statute law, and organic law in every country of Christendom, but landless men are more and more beginning to question it. It is a question that involves more than law, it involves both ethics and religion, in the opinion of Isaiah of old, who pronounced a woe on Israel for joining house unto house and lot unto lot.

There are one million three hundred eighty thousand landless souls in North Carolina. More and more they are wondering about the one hundred thousand vacant town lots and the twenty-two million idle acres of farm land they look upon everywhere they turn in their home state—town lots and farm acres held out of productive use for speculative rises in value—held at prices that a full half of our people cannot afford to pay. What they see is land, land, everywhere and not a rood that the average wage-earner or farm-tenant can buy.

So it is in every state of the Union, with the result that the more populous and prosperous an area becomes the fewer are the people who own the houses they live in or the land they cultivate. It is Christendom's cruelest paradox. And no wonder men are beginning to question the common law meaning of property in land.

Estate or inheritance taxes, transfer taxes on increased sale values, progressive land taxes and the like are social ways of calling into question the rights of private property in land—in Belgium and Denmark, in

Great Britain, Australia, New Zealand, and Canada. Soon or late we shall have to resort to such remedies in America in behalf of the steadily increasing multitude of landless men. Students interested in this question are referred to Howe's Privilege and Democracy in America, Ghent's Benevolent Feudalism, Yetta Scheftel's The Taxation of Land Values, Rowntree's Land and Labor in Belgium, and Lusk's Social Welfare in New Zealand. The list is long, and these are just a few of the books that are best worth thumbing thoughtfully.

2. The second obstacle to land ownership lies in the heavy penalties laid on productive home and farm owners by the prevailing tax system of America. They are penalties so heavy that taxes, interest, repairs and insurance combined force the average man to rent rather than to own a farm or a home of his own. It is a tax system that imposes light or relatively light burdens on unimproved town lots and farm lands, and heavy burdens on lots and farms put to productive uses by enterprising owners. It is a system that rewards the inactive owner of idle lots and lands and punishes the wage-earner who buys a home or the tenant who buys a farm. The minute he ceases to be a tenant and becomes a home or a land owner, the taxgatherer darkens his door. For instance, the renters and croppers in the farm regions of North Carolina pay no taxes of any sort whatsoever, to the county, the state, or the federal government. Or so as a rule, because they own no land, and no personal property beyond the exemption of $300 per household. They no longer pay poll taxes as a condition of voting. They pay no state income tax because they have no income beyond the exemption of $2000 per family head and no federal taxes because they have no incomes beyond the exemption of $2,000 per family head. In the area surveyed only eleven of the fifty-one tenant farmers are on the township tax lists. Forty of them are as tax-free as the birds of the air. But the minute any one of these forty buys a farm he pays county taxes on the full value of his purchase or so much of it as the assessor wills, no matter how little the new owner may have paid on his little farm, or how much he may still owe. He improves his property and increases its value, whereupon the assessor increases its tax value and calls for more taxes. The more industrious he is the heavier his tax burden becomes. So it is everywhere under the uniform ad valorem tax system—the general property tax system of this and other states, a system that has been abolished for state support in North Carolina, but that still remains the basis of county and municipal taxation. One may well doubt the essential righteousness of a tax system that rewards inactivity and punishes industry, thrift, and enterprise.

As a result the wage earners in our cities and the farm tenants in our country regions tell you that it is cheaper to rent than to own homes and farms. And it is true almost everywhere in America. But what a pity it is! And how direful the menace to home life and responsible citizenship —to the foundations of national sanity, security, and stability!

Constructive Suggestions

In behalf of aspiring, capable, worthy tenants in the town and country regions of North Carolina, we offer the following recommendations—not so much for immediate adoption as for popular discussion aimed at changes in the tax laws of the state as rapidly as practical wisdom may dictate. The people of North Carolina cannot erect a stable commonwealth on the landless estate of men, and the sooner we face this fundamental truth the better.

For lack of space we are stating without discussing these recommendations.

First, we recommend constitutional changes that will permit the classification of property values and the tax rates thereon; which means the definite abandonment for all purposes of the ancient general property tax. For an excellent discussion of the general property tax see McPherson's chapter in the 1908 volume of the International Tax Association.

Second, the separate listing of real estate and the improvements thereon in both town and country areas; the rates on improvements to be made low enough to encourage and reward industry and enterprise.

Third, definitely low tax rates on homes occupied by the owners and on farms operated by the landlords thereof; definitely higher tax rates on unused or unimproved town lots and farm lands; and still higher rates on such lots and farm lands when owned by residents of other states and countries. Which means, progressive land taxes—beginning with low rates on small properties occupied or used for productive purposes by the owners thereof, followed by rates gradually increasing acording to acreage or value, with higher rates laid on unused, unimproved town lots and farm lands, and with the highest rates laid on such unused property when held by alien landlords.

The progressive land tax has been in force in New Zealand for thirty years. It took a score of years to put it on the law books of that country, and it will take a century or so to make it effective in bringing idle town lots and farm acres into productive use; so difficult is it to choke out of men the purely speculative interest in land ownership.

Such a law will be slow to get on the tax books of any state or country of the western world, and it will be slower still in accomplishing its purpose—namely, to give landless men a chance to own homes to live in and farms to cultivate. But we might as well begin to discuss it now in North Carolina.

Fourth, the taxing of the equities and nothing but the equities of home and farm owners, when the properties are occupied or operated by the owners themselves. As it is now, the owners of five-to-twenty-year mortgages amounting to $3000 or less are exempt from taxation in North Carolina, provided these mortgages cover money loaned to buy homes and call for 5 percent interest or less. If we can exempt the owners of such mortgages, surely we can exempt the owners of such homes from tax on the property covered by these mortgages.

The manifest purpose of these constructive suggestions is to encourage the increase of owned homes, farms, and productive businesses of every type, (1) by minimizing the tax burdens of small homeowners and small farmers and giving them a decent chance to hold their homes and farms, (2) by laying a penalty on the owners of idle lots and farms, (3) by encouraging enterprise with lower rates on real estate improvements and investments, and (4) by penalizing acquisitive capital of the miserly type and rewarding productive capital invested in active enterprises in North Carolina.

Fifth, a State Land Settlement Board, charged (1) with investigating the California plan of establishing farm colonies, and (2) reporting a feasible plan of state-aid to capable farm tenants in North Carolina. With 100,000 vacant city lots, twenty-two million acres of idle farm land, and one million three hundred and eighty thousand landless, homeless people, town and country, it is high time we were considering proposed remedies of any sort whatsoever.

THE EFFECTS OF HOME AND FARM OWNERSHIP

F. A. GRISSETTE, Caldwell County

So far in the club studies of the year, we have been considering Tenancy, Town and Country, (1) the bare facts of its extent and increase since 1880, (2) the areas of excessive farm tenancy—namely the South and the Middle West, (3) tenancy in town and city centers, (4) tenancy in mill and factory centers, (5) tenancy in the United States and in the Old World countries, (6) the causes producing the landless estate of men, (7) the status of the tenant and his standards of living in North Carolina. In other words the club has been digging out the bare facts of farm and home tenancy and outlining the subject as a preface to studies centered upon the ways and means of promoting home and farm ownership. In brief the club has been clearing the ground for a consideration of constructive measures, based (1) on self-help and the personal use of private agencies, (2) on state and federal aid, and (3) on such state-aid remedies in North Carolina as seem possible to the club.

My subject concerns the Effects of Home and Farm Ownership on the one hand and of Home and Farm Tenancy on the other, (1) on personality, (2) on family life, (3) on labor and industry, (4) on community life and enterprise, (5) on the church, and (6) on citizenship and the democratic institutions that depend on citizenship.

The student marked up to make this particular study and to report on it at this session of the club is ill and absent. It is proper to say that I was suddenly called on to serve as a proxy. I have found my subject to be a large order and also that I had a minimum opportunity to treat it adequately or creditably. I have therefore been obliged to hurry through the seminar files of the department of Rural Social Economics, and to rely upon the help of Messrs. Branson and Hobbs in the preparation of this report.

The Meaning of Land Ownership

In the first place I want to say that the meaning of home-ownership in our towns and of farm ownership in our country regions is fundamentally significant. Property-ownership of any sort is significant. It indicates property-owning virtues in a man—(1) industry or the willingness to toil steadily and persistently, (2) thrift or the power of self-denial coupled with prudential foresight, (3) sagacity or the power to think a thing clear through to the end, (4) sobriety or clear-headedness undisturbed by intoxicating liquors, and (5) integrity of character and reputation for truthfulness, honesty, and promptness in discharging obligations to the minute. All these are qualities that build civilization in a man or a nation.

But the possession of landed property is even more significant—so significant that in every land and country history is recorded in terms of land tenures, because the makers of history have been the owners of land. The history of England is the story of land ownership. The status of Germany

today is the status determined by the Junkers, and the foundational fact in Russia and the Balkan States is not sovietism or communism but the breaking up of the great estates and the transfer of land ownership from the few to the many. The early Anglo-Saxons perfectly expressed the significance of land ownership in the proverbs, The land is the man, No land no man, Who owns the land owns the man, The owners of land are the rulers of men, The makers of history are the owners of land, and so on.

The man who does not own the house he lives in or the farm he cultivates is (1) either crippled in body or brain by heredity and thus is born an underling, or (2) he lacks the home-owning virtues and cannot develop them, or (3) he is the victim of unforeseen events—illness, death in the family, fire, floods, storms and the like—and cannot recover his grip on himself or his surroundings under modern conditions, or (4) if heredity, personal qualities, and the chances of life be in his favor, he finds it impossible or unwise to acquire land because farm land prices are so high that no profits can be wrung out of farm products, or town-lot prices are so high and building construction so expensive that it is cheaper to rent than to own a home. In any event the landless man runs the risk of being subdued by the conditions that envelop him; of having his nature dyed, like the weaver's hand, by the social medium he lives in and works in. Once resigned to the lot of a tenant under modern conditions, the chances are that he will always be a tenant, and what is worse, that his children, and children's children will be tenants to the remotest generation.

The land owner, and especially the man who acquires landed property by his own industry and sagacity, is apt to be a sturdy, robust, upstanding, self-respecting member of society; he is usually a permanent resident of the community and identified with its fortunes; he has a chance to feel a proprietary interest in community institutions and enterprises; he develops an assurance that he belongs to the class out of which county commissioners, city aldermen, mayors, legislators, congressmen, and governors are chosen; he is apt to have an active interest in law and order and to stand on the right side of moral, industrial and political issues. Home and farm ownership develops a proper self-respect in men, steadies their judgment in business matters, and in moral and political issues, and makes of them a bulwark of defense for the community or the country in which they live. It was the well-nigh universal ownership of homes and farms, businesses and bonds that put iron into the soul of Foch's armies at the front. They were fighting in defense of what was their very own.

On the other hand, what is apt to be true of a community, a commonwealth, or a country where tenancy is the rule and land ownership the exception? In North Carolina, say, where one of every three white farmers, two of every three negro farmers, from two to three of every five city dwellers, and from eight to nine of every ten factory wage-earners live in other people's houses or cultivate other people's land—all told 1,380,000 people, or more than half of our entire population? Or in the United

States, where already fifty-four million people are landless and homeless—where at least five million of them are houseless, or herded in slum quarters in city centers?

As for farm tenants, their estate in life is well described by Prof. S. H. Hobbs, Jr. Says he: "Farm tenants, because they have no stake in the land, have small chance to develop abiding interest in community life. They are strangers, pilgrims, sojourners in the land. They are usually discontented and forever on the move. And they cannot be blamed for their discontent. They are forever seeking to better their condition by adventuring into new fields. This of course spells disaster for schools, school attendance, school consolidation, and churches in town and country areas alike. It delays the development of good roads. It cripples public health work. It multiplies the problems of law and order. It hinders community organization and community enterprise in behalf of progress and prosperity, welfare and well-being. It spells disaster for coöperative marketing associations. A landless, homeless, wandering tenant population cannot become prosperous coöperative machines. Coöperation is rooted in land ownership, and a farm civilization rooted in short-term tenancy can hardly succeed with coöperative enterprises. In order to succeed a coöperative enterprise must have a stable membership."

A tenant community is usually a poverty-stricken community—especially in territories where cotton and tobacco are grown. Even if tenants make a great deal of money in good years, they rarely ever accumulate property—so, because they have had the very poorest chance to learn even the first principles of economy. They seem to know or to care little about live-at-home farming. They are restless and like Poor Joe they are forever moving on. Three moves are worse than a fire, but farm tenants rarely ever stop to think of it. In a community of excessive tenancy you are sure to find lodges, churches, and social organizations of every sort weak or lacking altogether. In the main where the per cent of farm tenancy is least, we find fraternal organizations most numerous and most actively useful. A rural community in a cotton or tobacco county in North Carolina, where from two-thirds to three fourths of the farmers white and black are croppers, as in Edgecombe or Scotland counties, offers a startling contrast to a rural community in Denmark where more than nine of every ten farmers are land owners. The Danish farmer is a home-owning farmer. He has his legs under his own table, as the phrase goes in Denmark. On an average he belongs to eight different coöperative associations for financing and marketing his crops and buying his farm supplies—a creamery, or a cheese, or a ham and bacon, or a poultry coöperative, a credit union coöperative, various buying coöperatives—coöperatives for every detail of farming. Danish farmers can coöperate because they are land owners, and therefore settled members of the community with capital thriftily accumulated. They can enter into joint business contracts because they are stable members of the community and they can therefore establish stable businesses based on stable community life. As a result nobody is extremely rich or extremely poor in Denmark. The wealth of this farm state

is distributed as nearly equally as in any other country on the globe; but also man for man it is the richest country on earth today. Danish bank account savings, for instance, average $160 per inhabitant, against $45 in North Carolina. There is no illiteracy in Denmark, or practically none—the rate is less than two illiterates per thousand inhabitants against a native white illiteracy rate of twenty per thousand in the United States and eighty-two in North Carolina. The Danish farmer is the best read man in Europe. It is commonly said that he would rather do without his breakfast than his morning newspaper. He is contented, lives well, pushes his business hard, thinks its problems through from his farm to the table of the consumer, owns all the agencies of distribution and reaps nearly every cent of the profit. He takes a lively interest in politics and if farming needs protective legislation he journeys to the capital and gets it as a law maker. The farmers are largely in the majority in the parliament and in the cabinet of his country. The explanation lies in the fact that Denmark is a farm-owning civilization, in which tenants and casual farm laborers are so few as to be negligible. None of the advantages of Denmark can be won in any state or country, on any basis of safety for either business or politics, if the masses are landless and homeless, restless, roving, and unidentified with community life, unconcerned and irresponsible in attitude toward the problems of law and order, progress and prosperity, welfare and well-being. Civilization for a man or a nation, as Professor Branson is fond of saying, is rooted and grounded in the home-owning, home-loving, home-defending instincts.

Land Ownership and Personality

So much for the significance of home and farm ownership in general. Let us now consider the particular effects of land-ownership on personality.

Owning a home, living under one's own roof-tree, is in itself a distinction in city life in modern times. In Greensboro where home owners are relatively most numerous in North Carolina cities, the home-owner is only one out of every three inhabitants, in Wilmington and Winston-Salem he is only one out of every four. Being a freeholder alone marks him as a man of consequence. He may hold up his head in pride and look his fellow man in the face as a democratic equal. Hs is a man to be considered and reckoned with in community life. The merchant wants his trade and the banker his deposits. He it is that supports the town as a taxpayer, and the church as a contributor—or so it is as a rule. His opinions and wishes must be solicited and his attitudes considered. He may hold himself erect, and according to the measure of his ability he may enjoy the refinements of life. He is the foundation stone of business life, and church life and political life; the home-owner is the hope of democracy. So he is in town life, so he is in country life, and he is all the time and everywhere reminded of his social status. The result is a sturdy, robust, personality. No weakling can win a home or a farm by his own effort, or long retain it either, if perchance it is passed on to him by inheritance.

On the other hand, the lack of home-ownership by wage-earners, salaried people, casual laborers, in town and city centers produces or tends to produce a careless, restless, reckless, thriftless, irresponsible, happy-go-lucky population with a minimum of personal property, commonly with no property at all, and no incentive to lay by anything for a rainy day. As a result the characteristic pleasures of city populations in all countries and all ages have been flashy and cheap and gross. The bread and circuses of the days of the Caesars are matched by the cakes and movies and prize fights of today. Given these, our city mobs are harmless as kittens; but if there be any lack of them the growl of the populace terrorizes statesmen and rejoices the heart of the bolshevist who knows that a fit time is at hand for sowing the seeds of anarchy. Such in the main is the social-economic status of thirty-five of the fifty million town and city dwellers in the United States. Why should they be conservative when they have little or nothing to conserve? With little or no property at risk why should they not listen to any kind of fantastic radicalism? Why should they be concerned in preserving the established order when they have no propriety interest in it? But for the saving salt of a dependent middle class, whose existence depends on subserviency, American cities would today be hot beds of socialism, as in England and Belgium. So much for tenancy personality and its dominancy in city areas. John Smith the city tenant is even more important than John Smith the country tenant—if for no other reason, because there are nearly three times as many of him, and he is herded in compact masses in small areas where restless discontent in hard times spreads by contagion like smallpox. The country tenant is less numerous and less dangerous. He lives in social insulation. He is improvident, poverty-stricken, and illiterate—at least, he is so in the South as a rule. He is wasteful and destructive. Soils, farm buildings, farm animals, tools, and implements fall into ruin in his hands. He raises little food, and his money goes for bread and meat, clothes, patent medicines. Fords, snuff, tobacco, hooch, and gross, coarse pleasures. He is his own worst enemy. Society little regards him and passes him by in innocent unconcern. Or so it is in the South. In the far west it is a different story. There the landless, homeless farm tenants and day laborers are not illiterate. They are highly sophisticated. Many of them are high school and college graduates. They appear in large numbers in the summer schools. Prof. Branson reports three Blanket Stiffs, as they call themselves, in his classes in California during the last summer and he had his hands full to head off their I. W. W. doctrines. His conclusion is that personality without a property basis is equal to any fantastic creed and deed; that the sole hope of democracy is to root it in the ownership of homes and farms, in business enterprises owned and operated by proprietors, in bank account savings, building and loan shares, and in stocks and bonds. Let a man have something to safeguard, a home at risk, a business to engineer, a solvent credit to watch, if you would have him prudent, sanely poised and safe in his attitudes and impulses. The day is already at hand in America—the day that Macaulay foresaw in 1837

—when the debt-owers outnumber the debt-owners, the have-nots the haves, the half hungry the well filled. The laggards in life's race have ballots in their hands in these United States, and ballots more than once in our history—even in the history of North Carolina—have given place to bullets.

Home-Ownership and the Family

The man who lives in his own home has a better chance than a renter to rear a family in safety, to choose his own neighborhood and the associations of his children, to hold them together in the pride of social position, to keep them busy with caretaking tasks on the home place, to knit together the ties of family relationship. The home he has won is an evidence of his personal worth, but even more it is an eloquent testimony to his devotion to a wife, and the children of his bosom. Keeping the home place painted, repaired, comfortably furnished, trim and attractive, is a common family task that appeals to family industry and pride.

But when a man lives in a rented home in a doubtful or dangerous neighborhood—the best, sometimes the only place he can secure—the loss of family self-respect becomes quickly evident in the bedraggled appearance of the property—the lack of paint, the accumulation of dirt and trash, window-panes replaced with paper or stuffed with rags, fences down, gates and doors hanging on one hinge, and so on. The consequences seem to be unavoidable. Many presidents of the United States have been born poor, but not one of them was ever born in the home of a renter or tenant. They have all sprung out of the loins of home-owners of high degree or low, but home-owners on some level of life. And no more do the preachers come out of farm tenant homes. Five sixths of all the preachers of the largest denomination in North Carolina have come out of country homes, but not one of them was born in a farm tenant home. Such is the statement of a research student of the University here who spent three years investigating this field. The farm tenant's home in the South is not a seed bed of success for the children in any line of life. The home of the city tenant or renter is oftentimes on a much higher level of integrity and culture. But the man who rears a family under his own roof-tree is the man whose sons and daughters are introduced to life on its best terms, and ushered into the work of the world with the largest chances of success.

Home-Ownership and Industry

In the third place, we may ask, What effect does tenancy have upon industry? As we might expect, excessive tenancy is detrimental to industry. The writer had the privilege of working during one summer vacation in Akron, Ohio, for the Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company. This mammoth concern employs 30,000 men and women. They have bought a large plot of land adjacent to the factories and have spent millions of dollars in building nice houses for their employees. The head of a family cannot get a job with the Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company until he buys his home—unless he lives in Akron and already owns his home. They

give him every possible inducement to own his home. He pays for it out of his pay envelope just as he would pay rent. The result is that the workmen are contented and make good employees. They work well, and a strike there is an unheard of thing. In the same town the Goodrich Tire and Rubber Company provides no homes for its employees. They have to pay more for their help, and are almost constantly having some labor trouble. Many or most of the mill people in North Carolina do not own their homes, but the ownership of homes by mill operatives would, in my opinion, decrease the labor turnover and the expense and waste of it; would contribute to contentedness and reduce the danger of strikes; would promote the steadiness and poise of mind that brings people together in bargains made in the full freedom of contract. When wage earners no longer own the tools of their craft, or the houses they live in, and when even they put aside all desire for home-ownership, then the problems of democracy will pass beyond all peaceful solution.

Tenancy and Illiteracy

But what are the effects upon education? Tenancy breeds illiteracy and illiteracy breeds tenancy. That just about properly describes the situation. Tenants don't go to school. They don't have taste or time or inclination for schools and education. A friend of mine recently spent the night with a Nash county farmer. He was reported to be one of the leading farmers in his community, but he was a renter. In the family were two small children and a young lady twenty years of age. The mother was dead. There was a school house two hundred yards from the house. At breakfast my friend in an effort to start a conversation with her (he admits that she was by no means unattractive) said: "Miss A., I imagine you teach in the school here, do you not?" The young woman blushing with shame replied: "No, I have not yet completed the course in that school. I only wish I could teach. I don't go any more, because I am so old and so far behind in my work that I am ashamed to go." That family is typical of Southern tenancy on its higher levels.

Almost invariably the county or state or nation that has excessive tenancy also has excessive illiteracy. Edgecombe and Scotland counties are among the leaders of the state in both illiteracy and tenancy. North and South Carolina, Mississippi, and Alabama lead the country in both illiteracy and tenancy. Denmark illustrates the reverse of this statement. There only two out of every thousand are illiterate. In North Carolina there are eighty-two white illiterates in every thousand of population. Denmark with a population almost exactly that of North Carolina has 28 agricultural colleges. In size it is only about as large as the cotton and tobacco section of North Carolina. Denmark, the land of home-owning farmers, is far ahead of us in school buildings, school attendance, length of school term, school equipment, and in the salary and qualifications of teachers.

Tenancy and the Church

What is the effect of tenancy upon the church? I don't know whether or not you ever thought about tenancy having any effect upon the church, but the fact remains that it does have a very important effect. The people who own their homes attend church more than the tenants do. Does tenancy have any effect upon the interest taken in and the progress of the church? Rather than any personal opinion about the matter, let us look at the facts. In twenty-one counties of the cotton and tobacco section of this state there is a larger per cent of teuancy than in any other section. In these twenty-one counties containing approximately one-fifth of the area of the state there are 171,427 people over ten years of age who are not on the rolls of any church whatsoever. More than one-third of the entire non-church membership of the state is in one-fifth of its area. Vance county is the twentieth county iu tenancy ratio, and twenty-seven per ceut of the people of Vance county do not belong to any church. Edgecombe has next to the largest per cent of tenancy in the state and also it has the largest per cent of non-church membership. Seventy-seven per cent of her people do not belong to any church of any name or sect or sort. In the eight counties of North Carolina where farm tenancy is highest more than half the people ten years of age and over do not belong to any church.

But let us look at other states. In Kausas nearly forty per cent of the farmers are tenants, and forty-five per cent of the people of Kansas belong to no church. Twenty-nine per cent of the people who attend church in Kansas go only one Sunday of every ten, and only twenty-six per cent of the population are rated as regular attendants at church. Missouri makes a better showing. Only fourteen per cent of her farmers are tenants, and nearly half of her people are church attendants. The whole situation summed up amounts to this: Field surveys show that right around fifty-three per cent of the people who own their homes and farms attend church regularly, while only thirty-three per cent of those who do not own their homes attend. The higher the ratios of home ownership, the higher the ratios of church membership and church attendance; the higher the ratios of tenancy the lower the ratios of church membership and attendance.

It is only natural for tenants to stay away from church. They take little interest in churches because they have little money with which to support churches. Where we can't pay we don't go, is the way a tenant puts it. The South over, half of our farm tenants move every year. Therefore there is little inducement for them to get the church letter out of the tray of the trunk—that is if they ever belonged to any church at all—and to join the church in the new community. Before they become acquainted they are ready to pack up and move again. Here in a word is the explanation of the churchless tenant farmer and the dead or dying churches in areas of excessive white tenancy.

In this connection the results of a survey of church conditions in Gibson county, Tennessee, are interesting and enlightening. The survey was made

by the church and country life department of the Northern Presbyterian Board of Home Missions. Gibson county is a typical cotton county in west Tennessee. Its percentage of tenant farmers is not quite as large as the average for North Carolina. In addition to farming as a main industry it has twenty-two cotton gins, sixteen saw mills, one large box factory, one cotton mill, one cotton seed mill, and ten other manufacturing plants; and three railroads serve the county. It is as you see a typical southern cotton county, and we can safely assume that the conditions there are fairly representative of the whole South.

There are one hundred and thirty-four white churches in the county. Eighty-two of these are located out in the open country. Of these eighty-two country churches only twenty-eight or thirty-four per cent are growing, while the other fifty-four are either stationary, or losing ground, or dying, or dead. On an average there is a church for every 4.8 square miles of territory. Anyone can see that it is a sadly over-churched area. Too many little country churches are just as absurd as too many little one-room school houses. Both are failing to function properly. Only 45 per cent of the men between 20 and 30 years old are members of the church and only twenty-five per cent of the girls and women of that age. More than seventy-five per cent of the preaching is of the once-a-month variety. Only thirty-eight per cent of the entire population of the county belongs to the church. Only sixty-one per cent of the churches had any Sunday school and in many of these the Sunday schools were conducted for only six months of the years. Only twelve per cent of the people are enrolled in the country Sunday schools and only sixty per cent of those enrolled attend. Here as elsewhere in the South the negroes belong to churches and go to church much better than the white people do. The value of the property of the average country church is only $1,092. Only two of the eighty-two country churches are served by resident ministers. These two churches have preaching twice a month and the others only once a month or irregularly upon occasion.

We are rehearsing these facts in order to exhibit the condition of the country church in the farm tenant community, and to emphasize the fact that tenancy is a church problem. If the country church does not destroy farm tenancy, then farm tenancy will destroy the country church. The country church must in self-defense get busy with this problem of home and farm ownership. It seems to me that some of them have got to consolidate. There are too many that cannot support themselves. In Gibson county there are two within sight of each other and both of them poorer than Job's turkey. These churches will tell you that their aim is the salvation of souls, but all the argument in the world would not convince them that two churches working jointly toward a common end would have more success than if they held apart in denominational rivalry. Church consolidation is necessary if country churches are ever to have money enough for a resident minister on full salary in a comfortable church home. The lack of such salaries and such homes explains why country preachers, like country doctors, are fleeing out of the country

regions. Three hours a month is about the maximum of service a country minister gives for the money he receives, with the exception of an occasional wedding or funeral. The country church needs to be the center of community life, where the farmers come together to work out their problems, and the preacher might well be the leader of the meeting; where the country women can bring their community clubs with the parson's wife directing things. Children in their youth want to play not because the devil is in them, but because it is natural. Let them gather at the church for games, the preacher's children along with the rest of them. The preacher need not be a farmer, but he must understand farming, have a keen sympathy for farming and a ready mind to help them solve their problems. He must encourage the ownership of farms and lead tenants out of teuancy. The Bible talks about flocks and herds, shepherds and husbandmen, sowing and reaping, barus and granaries; and great spiritual truths were illustrated by these practical things of every day life. And so today country preachers must talk about coöperative marketing, credit unions, public health, and the like.

America is today confronted with the great question of whether or not we can socialize, civilize or Christianize a landless, homeless people. Can democracy survive if land ownership by the few and land orphanage for the many be the rule and way of life?

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FARM TENANTRY IN NORTH CAROLINA

Josiah W. Bailey, Raleigh, N. C.

The Commonwealth of North Carolina has made amazing industrial progress within twenty-five years. Hundreds of cotton factories, furniture factories, knitting mills, and other industrial enterprises, together with the transmission of water power, have transformed the commonwealth from one that was classified as almost wholly a rural commonwealth into one that stands among the first fifteen of American industrial commonwealths. We have developed our water powers to a degree beyond the most daring dreams of a quarter of a century ago. Altogether we are safe in saying that no state since 1900 has achieved such industrial progress as has North Carolina; and no Southern state since the Civil war has made such industrial progress as has North Carolina. Less than half our population now lives on farms. A generation ago eighty per cent of it was agricultural. Our gross income from agriculture is $260,000,000 per year, from manufacturing $960,000,000.

This industrial progress has been attended by rapidly improving material conditions. Cities have grown up, towns have multiplied, private fortunes have become more frequent, the general commercial income of the people has been greatly increased; newspaper making, for example, has become a prosperous business, whereas twenty-five years ago there was scarcely a paying newspaper business in the state; and, as a whole, our prosperity has been such that the impression has gone abroad that North Carolina is a rich state—a state of rich people.

But there is another side to the picture. Amazing and gratifying as has been our industrial progress, we must confront the fact that half our population live on farms and by means of farming, and that half of our population has enjoyed no such prosperity as has been shared by those who have engaged in this great industrial development. The average income per farm worker is only $800; the average wealth per farm worker is less than $700. If it be granted that North Carolina has suddenly become a state of well-to-do industrial operators and workers, it must be conceded that the state remains one in which that half of her population engaged in farming is poor—very poor.

The problem of North Carolina is to bring up her lines of agricultural workers—to put them on a level with her industrial workers. Let it be granted that we have had and yet have too large a proportion of farmers and farm-workers; let it be granted that the immediate future holds the promise that our industrial development will absorb yet other thousands of our farm population—and for the good of all concerned; let us say, for example, that a well-balanced commonwealth should have only one farm-worker for each four of other than farm population—and that we are destined to come into this ratio within thirty years; we still must recognize that special attention is now due in the direction of agricultural relief and development. For agriculture is fundamental. It is indispensable.

With a view to this, I have come to make some suggestions.

Our primary agricultural difficulty iu North Carolina has been the tenant system, this system being very largely of the cropper (or share) character. Land-owners let out their land to tenants who pay, in lieu of fixed rent, one-fourth, one-third or one-half (as the case may be) of the crop for the year. This crop must be either cotton or tobacco—since either of these may be readily reduced to money or may be safely stored for a season.

This system was set up in 1865 to take the place of the slave system. It was intended for the newly freed negroes, aud doubtless was the best temporary substitute available. But today we have more white than negro tenants. In round figures we have 53,000 negro tenants and 63,000 white tenants. About half our farms are run upon the tenant system. The census tables show that the system has been extending since 1880—and this notwithstaudiug the tremendous absorption of white teuants by our industrial developmeut.

All the evidence goes to show that this system is ruinous. Very rarely does one find a prosperous tenant. The census shows that 300,000 of them (including their families) move every year—move because they have failed. They live on credit—advancements by the landlord or the time-merchant. Very rarely do tenauts become able to purchase land. They do well to live upon their labors. They pay out iu December and go back into debt in January.

Ou the other hand, the essential terms of the cropper contract demand the production of cotton and tobacco; and since advancements (or credit) depend upon the crop, the tendency is always iu the directiou of unbalanced farming, i. e., overproduction of money crops, underproduction of food crops.

Our immediate task is to rescue this tenaut class. It will never do to say that they and their children are destined always to be what they are. They are what they are because they are in such poverty. In their veins flows the same blood that flows in yours and mine. In their loins are offspring that under proper conditions will furnish the state with statesmen and industrial leaders. Our business—our chief business—is to make the most of men and women and children wherever we find them. Poverty is their great enemy, abject poverty. Ill-fed and uncared for, hopeless of progress, our new and magnificent free-school system can do but little for their children. We must not consign them to their fate. We must not abandon them. They are part of the commonwealth. They are part of us. They have a diviue right to a fair chance. And we are divinely obligated to give it to them.

Moreover, the state, no matter what degree of industrial progress it shall achieve, can never be proud of that progress so long as so considerable a proportion of her population languishes in such a condition.

And, further, upon economic grounds: Our agriculture must always be ill-balanced so long as by the very terms of land-tenure a large propor-

tion of the farming population must overproduce the money crops of cotton and tobacco. Thereby the land-owning farmers who produce cotton and tobacco are made to suffer from overproduction of these crops. And thereby the state tends to import food, hay and grain in undue measure. And, above all, the general consequence is a large section of the population in a hopeless condition of poverty themselves and their children ill-nourished, practically dependent and homeless.

I hold out the hope that our industrial development will rescue thousands more of these white tenants. But in the very nature of the case it will not meet the situation. Moreover we must not solve our problem by indulging the hope that our agricultural life will be reduced to the vanishing point. North Carolina must be a well-balanced commonwealth—neither industrial nor agricultural, but both.

Manifestly, we must get rid of the cropper system. It is a failure. It is a source of retrogression.

Manifestly we must take steps to encourage independent land-ownership.

I am a reader of the University News Letter, and a follower of the work of the North Carolina Club. I get a large measure of my information from your publications, and I very greatly appreciate your work. I have been powerfully impressed with your disclosures of data as to the condition of our farmers, and not less by information as to the success of measures to encourage land-ownership in New Zealand and Denmark—one a new land, the other an old land. I have wondered if we might not with success attempt something of the sort with the white tenants of North Carolina. I would like to see the experiment tried upon a conservative scale under the auspices of the state. Say, for example, put a few of the more thrifty younger type of white tenant farmers in possession of small tracts of land, give them time to pay out, give them credit to start on, lead them along the lines of a balanced agriculture, in which food production comes first, and bid them work in hope that if they do well, they shall have a home and farm of their own. I am confident that such an experiment would in many cases succeed. I should like to see this experiment performed by land-owners—and for one I have set out upon it. If it succeeds I get good pay for my land, and I establish my fellow men upon the earth.

And, in any event, I counsel the land-owning farmers that the end of the cropper system is in sight. The boll-weevil will sound its death-knell. The cotton crop, always a gamble, will now become a game in which both owner and tenant will lose. We must turn to food production; and the cropper system cannot withstand that sort of agriculture. If I am right about this, we have here an additional reason for attempting to encourage and to establish our cropper tenants in land ownership.

Our commonwealth has a great destiny. But after all it will be only what we shall make of it—we and not others. We can shape its course—nay, we will shape its course. Where all is going well we have but to fall

in and encourage. If aught is amiss, let us be swift to set it right. We seek a certain goal. We have in mind the perfect commonwealth, in which all shall do well who mean well, in which prosperity (not wealth) shall be general, avoiding riches, on one hand, and poverty, on the other; in which every child shall be born to a reasonable hope of realizing, if he will, the best that is in him; and in which the toiler shall labor in assurance of the sure reward of a home and a competence for himself and those dependent upon him. It is not too much to expect this of North Carolina. Indeed we would be false to the state and to ourselves to strive for less.

May 22, 1922.

BANK ACCOUNT SAVINGS IN NORTH CAROLINA

R. F. Marshburn, Duplin County

In this report I am bringing up to date the report made on Bank Account Savings in the North Carolina Club Year-Book for 1916-17. That report brought the Bank Account Savings up to June 30, 1915, while this report brings them up to June 30, 1920, the latest date for which authoritative data could be secured.

In this study I shall show the data (1) for the United States as a whole, (2) for the forty-eight states ranked from high to low, and then (3) for North Carolina. In dealing with North Carolina I shall first show the bulk total of bank account savings as compared with other states. The figures for each state cover both state and national bank savings in banks of every sort reporting to the comptroller of the currency in Washington.

Bank Account Savings in the United States

In June 1915, according to the previous report, the people of the United States as a whole had more than seven and one-half billion dollars laid up against a rainy day, while in 1920 they had more than eleven billion dollars on savings accounts in banks of all sorts, which was an increase of three and a half billion dollars or nearly fifty per cent in five years. The average of bank account savings for the United States in 1920 was $105.75 per inhabitant. It is interesting to note that in 1920 as well as in 1915 nearly half of the bulk total of savings was deposited in the banks of New York, Massachusetts, and Pennsylvania.

Bank Account Savings in North Carolina

Our total deposits on savings account in 476 banks in North Carolina on June 23, 1915, amounted to $22,010,650, as figured from the reports of the state bank commission and the federal comptroller of the currency, but on June 30, 1920, they amounted to $116,154,000 figured from the same sources. Which is to say, our bank savings in five years were more than five-fold multiplied—a gain of 428 per cent against 47 per cent in the country-at-large. Our rank among other states of the Union in 1915 was twenty-eighth, while in 1920 we had passed seven states and climbed to the position of twenty-first. Here is a record to be proud of, and that we must fight to maintain. But it is a record we should not be content with.

In total bank account savings we rank along with the larger and wealthier states, but in savings per inhabitant we hold a lower rank. In 1915 our rank in this particular was 40th with $9.28 per inhabitant, while in 1920 with $45.39 per inhabitant our rank was only 34th. It is clearly evident from these data that we have made progress in total savings; but also that many other states have made much greater progress in savings per inhabitant.

The States Ahead of Us

New York leads with total bank account savings of $2,600,000,000 in round numbers, then come Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, and fifteen other states that outrank North Carolina. Mainly they are states in the North, East and West, but three of these are Southern states —Oklahoma, Virginia and Georgia. The total bank account savings of North Carolina are nearly exactly equal to those of California and Texas combined. But in per capita savings it is another story. New York does not lead in this particular. On this basis of comparison Vermont, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island all make a better showing than the Empire State of New York. Vermont with $371.54 per inhabitant leads the entire United States. Twenty-one states have total bank savings amounting to more than $110,000,000 and North Carolina is among this number. She has climbed into rich company since 1915.

It is interesting to note that Iowa has fallen just below North Carolina in both total and per capita savings, while in 1915 the bank account savings of Iowa were more than those of the nine cotton belt states all put together—more by nearly two million dollars. I am not explaining why this is, nor am I trying to explain why any section or state is ahead of any other section or state. Nevertheless these facts are well worth puzzling out. They are immensely significant.

Bank Savings Per Inhabitant

To get this problem more clearly before us, consider the bank savings per inhabitant. It is the only fair way to make comparisons, because some states are much larger than others, or have much larger populations.

Dividing the total bank savings of each state by the population we have a better basis on which to compare the various states. On this basis we find a range of $361.48 per inhabitant in the thrift of the states of the Union. That is to say, we find results that range from $10.06 in Arizona to $371.54 in Vermont. We lack a good deal of striking the happy medium in this range, where our rank is 34th, but let us not forget that this is better than 40th five years ago.

As in 1915 the averages in all the New England states are high, ranging in 1920 from $155 in New Hampshire to $371.64 in Vermont, except that Connecticut falls to 28th place with per capita savings of only $60.27. As a group of states however New England ranks first, the Eastern states second, the Middle West third, the Western states fourth, the Pacific states fifth, and the Southern states sixth and lowest. The per capita average for each group in 1920 was:

1. New England states	$264.80
2. Eastern states	181.00
3. Middle West states	98.36
4. Western states	80.69
5. Pacific states	75.38
6. Southern states	36.41

In the thirteen Southern states the average ranges from $12.28 in Texas to $72.25 in West Virginia. In this list North Carolina is 6th while South Carolina is second. Here are the per capita averages for the Southern states, and the rank of each in per capita bank account savings in 1920:

1.	West Virginia	$72.35
2.	South Carolina	56.50
3.	Virginia	55.39
4.	Louisiana	53.21
5.	Florida	46.03
6.	North Carolina	45.39
7.	Georgia	40.72
8.	Mississippi	34.35
9.	Tennessee	34.28
10.	Kentucky	33.36
11.	Alabama	18.75
12.	Arkansas	17.83
13.	Texas	12.28

When we compare these averages for the Southern states in 1920 with the averages of 1915, they look good. But they do not look so good when we compare them with those of other sections of the country in 1920. The South as a group of states foots the column in bank account savings per inhabitant. It is an unpleasant fact. And what is worse, South Carolina is $11.11 per inhabitant ahead of us. And Virginia is ahead with $10 per inhabitant more than North Carolina. In proportion to total population South Carolina has more negroes than any other state in the South, but she outranks North Carolina in bank account savings per inhabitant. It is not a creditable showing for our state. We far outrank both these states in the total value of farm crops and industrial output. We create more wealth year by year; they save more of it. It is another confirmation of Prof. Branson's discovery, namely, that North Carolina is great in wealth-creation, but weak in wealth-retention. We lag in the essential matter of thrift. Suppose for instance the people of North Carolina had the ingrained, seasoned thrift of the Down Easters in Vermont, we would have 952 million dollars in bank account savings instead of 116 million. In 1920 we created more than six times as much crop wealth and more than five times as much industrial wealth as Vermont, but Vermont saves man for man eight times as much as North Carolina—$372 in Vermont against our $45 per inhabitant in North Carolina. It is not a creditable showing for our home state. However we stand far ahead of Alabama, Arkansas, and Texas. In fact the total of their combined averages is only a little more than that of North Carolina—$48.86 against $45.39. The same fact appears when you compare the total bank account savings of these three states with those of North Carolina.

Summary and Conclusions

On June 30, 1920, our savings on deposit in 623 North Carolina banks were $116,154,000 as follows:

536 state banks	$83,429,000
87 national banks	32,725,000

In 1900 there were only 118 banks in North Carolina, eighty-eight of which were state banks, while thirty were national. In 1915 there were 394 state banks, and eighty national banks, or 474 banks all told. In 1920 we find 536 state banks, and eighty-seven national banks or 623 banks all told. The increase in number in twenty years was 505; the increase in the last five years was 149 or 31 per cent; but the increase in bank account savings during these five years was more than 400 per cent. We are gaining, but twenty states are still ahead of us in total bank savings and thirty-three states outrank us in per capita bank savings.

Prefatory to a closing summary two things need to be said: (1) bank account savings are significant because they are a barometer of thrift on part of the masses—which is to say, the little people who earn small wages or salaries, or whose incomes are derived from the professions or the hand trades, or from small farms or small businesses. These are the people who for the most part live in other people's houses or cultivate other people's land. Bank account savings are a measure of the effort of landless, homeless people to rise into property ownership, and then into home and farm ownership. The rich, as you know, do not keep their surpluses on savings account in the banks. Instead they invest them in productive enterprises, or in stocks and bonds, or other forms of solvent credit yielding or promising to yield larger interest rates than the banks pay on savings deposits.

Rising out of tenancy—of any sort anywhere—into home ownership depends first of all upon personal qualities; in short, upon the home-owning virtues—industry, thrift, sagacity, sobriety and integrity. The man who does not possess or cannot develop these virtues is hopeless. Lacking these virtues, not all the service agencies in the world—savings banks, building and loan associations, coöperative credit unions, state-aid or federal-aid laws and funds and the like—will avail. Without these virtues a man is a born underling whom it is well nigh impossible to lift into home and farm ownership, in North Carolina or anywhere else. And the people who cannot be helped are right around nine of every ten, the world around. A dozen or more field surveys in various communities, states, and countries during the last ten years show the apparently fatal ratio of nine thriftless to every one thrifty man. If the army and navy tests are correct, the ratio drops to less than one in every twenty. That is to say, of every twenty grown-ups, nearly nineteen are only ten years old in mind.

In the next place (2) it is proper to say that the attention of this club during the discussions running through the rest of the college year must be centered upon the economic, social, and civic conditions that

have arisen in an industrial-urban civilization and that take the heart out of a man no matter how capable and worthy he is of owning a home or a farm.

The only thing we can do is to point a way of escape for these, (1) in the private agencies that abound—banks of deposit, Morris banks, savings banks, credit unions, coöperative marketing and buying associations, (2) in proper state-aid laws, and (3) in proper federal legislation; to direct them to the agencies that lend themselves to robust self-help, or that remove obstacles and reward property-owning, farm-owning enterprises on part of the individual—that throw wide open the door of opportunity. The constructive measures advocated by the Club concern the people that can be helped; not the nine-tenths who cannot be helped because of incurable personal or hereditary handicaps.

The solemn warning of James J. Hill may be passed on to the Club:

If you want to know, said he, whether you are destined to be a success or a failure in life, you can easily find out. The test is simple and it is infallible. Are you able to save money? If not, drop out. You will lose. You may think not, but you will lose, as sure as you live. The seed of success is not in you.

The following summary indicates how well the people of North Carolina are measuring up to James J. Hill's standard of success:

1. One hundred sixteen million dollars was the total of bank account savings in North Carolina on June 30, 1920. The total on even date five years before was only twenty-two million dollars.

2. North Carolina stands ahead of 27 states of the Union in total bank account savings. Its rank is only a little below that of Georgia and Virginia, but far below that of Oklahoma. However, our total bank savings are nearly exactly equal to those of Texas and California combined.

3. Our bank savings were $45.39 per inhabitant on June 30, 1920, counting men, women, and children of both races. On even date five years before our per capita average was only $9.28. Thirty-three states made a better showing in 1920 in per capita bank savings and among these were Oklahoma, South Carolina, Virginia, Louisiana and Florida. We are gaining, but we are not gaining fast enough. Our per capita savings on bank account are small because of a heavy negro population; but other states with heavier negro populations than North Carolina has are making a better showing.

See the tables that close this discussion for the 1920 figures. For the 1915 figures see pp. 65-73 of Wealth and Welfare in North Carolina, the North Carolina Club Year-Book for 1916-17.

Sources of Information

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A Few Fundamental Facts, by Dr. Cyrus Thompson, Jacksonville, N. C. Feb. 27, 1922.

BANK ACCOUNT SAVINGS IN THE UNITED STATES
In All Banks, Year Ending June 30, 1920

Based on Report of the Comptroller of the Currency, 1920.

R. F. MARSHBURN, Duplin County
Department of Rural Social-Economics, University of North Carolina

Rank	State	Savings Deposits	Rank	State	Savings Deposits
1.	New York	$2,601,287,000	25.	Louisiana	$94,708,000
2.	Massachusetts	1,421,460,000	26.	Connecticut	83,208,000
3.	Pennsylvania	1,204,736,000	27.	Kentucky	80,637,000
4.	Ohio	764,987,000	28.	Tennessee	79,974,000
5.	Michigan	617,695,000	29.	Montana	73,901,000
6.	Minnesota	441,095,000	30.	New Hampshire	69,037,000
7.	New Jersey	400,399,000	31.	Colorado	67,968,000
8.	Wisconsin	351,168,000	32.	California	67,210,000
9.	Indiana	269,742,000	33.	Mississippi	60,506,000
10.	Missouri	224,269,000	34.	Texas	57,284,000
11.	Rhode Island	206,599,000	35.	Oregon	54,492,000
12.	Oklahoma	185,497,000	36.	Alabama	44,695,000
13.	Illinois	140,273,000	37.	Florida	44,580,000
14.	Maryland	133,411,000	38.	Maine	43,564,000
15.	South Dakota	133,138,000	39.	Utah	42,837,000
16.	Vermont	130,943,000	40.	Nebraska	37,641,000
17.	Virginia	127,912,000	41.	Delaware	35,399,000
18.	North Dakota	119,122,000	42.	Arkansas	31,159,000
19.	Georgia	117,917,000	43.	Idaho	30,806,000
20.	Washington	116,949,000	44.	Kansas	29,076,000
21.	North Carolina	116,154,000	45.	Nevada	13,932,000
22.	Iowa	108,961,000	46.	Wyoming	13,360,000
23.	West Virginia	105,990,000	47.	New Mexico	12,681,000
24.	South Carolina	95,129,000	48.	Arizona	3,361,000

—University News Letter, Vol. VIII, No. 21.

BANK ACCOUNT SAVINGS IN THE UNITED STATES

Per Inhabitant, June 30, 1920

Total in all banks, State and National, divided by total population. Based on Report of the Comptroller of the Currency, 1920.

R. F. Marshburn, Duplin County
Department of Rural Social-Economics, University of North Carolina

Rank	State	Per Inhabitant	Rank	State	Per Inhabitant
1.	Vermont	$371.54	25.	Oregon	$69.56
2.	Massachusetts	369.00	26.	Wyoming	68.72
3.	Rhode Island	341.83	27.	Missouri	65.88
4.	New York	250.48	28.	Connecticut	60.27
5.	South Dakota	209.15	29.	South Carolina	56.50
6.	Minnesota	184.78	30.	Maine	56.45
7.	North Dakota	184.00	31.	Virginia	55.39
8.	Nevada	179.98	32.	Louisiana	53.21
9.	Michigan	168.39	33.	Florida	46.03
10.	Delaware	158.74	34.	North Carolina	45.39
11.	New Hampshire	155.80	35.	Iowa	45.28
12.	Pennsylvania	140.50	36.	Georgia	40.72
13.	Wisconsin	133.42	37.	New Mexico	35.19
14.	Ohio	132.82	38.	Mississippi	34.35
15.	Montana	132.81	39.	Tennessee	34.28
16.	New Jersey	130.04	40.	Kentucky	33.36
17.	Utah	95.09	41.	Nebraska	29.03
18.	Indiana	92.05	42.	Illinois	21.63
19.	Maryland	92.03	43.	California	19.32
20.	Oklahoma	91.45	44.	Alabama	18.75
21.	Washington	86.20	45.	Arkansas	17.83
22.	Colorado	73.40	46.	Kansas	16.45
23.	West Virginia	72.35	47.	Texas	12.28
24.	Idaho	71.33	48.	Arizona	10.06

—University News Letter, Vol. No. 19.

CO-OPERATIVE CREDIT UNIONS

BERTHA AUSTIN, Alabama

In this study we are interested in the coöperative credit union (1) as a modern form of business enterprise, and (2) as a means of helping landless people who have the desire and the will to become owners of farms and homes—as a private service agency for self-helping people who are industrious, thrifty, sagacious, sober, and trustworthy.

A credit union is a coöperative association composed of any number of share holding members, who may be investors or borrowers or both, and who are mutually responsible for the success of the organization, the policies of which are shaped by both borrowers and investors.

A Brief History of Credit Unions

The coöperative credit associations of the modern type took definite form in Central Europe in the year 1848 in the organization of the first Raiffeisen bank and the first Schulze-Delitzsch credit association. The Raiffeisen bank was organized especially for operation in agricultural communities, the other for urban communities. The principles as well as the purposes of these institutions are practically identical. They spread rapidly throughout continental Europe and later into Egypt, India and other British colonies. They were first introduced into the United States in Massachusetts in 1909. Massachusetts led in the credit union movement in the United States, in the number of organizations, in total membership, and in the volume of business. But the credit unions of Massachusetts are all in the town and city centers among clerks and other wage-earners. There are no farm credit unions in Massachusetts. It was left for North Carolina to lead in credit unions in the country regions.

The year the World War began there were over 65,000 credit unions in continental Europe with 15,000,000 members, and they were doing an annual business of seven billion dollars, this amount being accumulated only through the mobilization of the small and widely scattered credits of the people. Their bad debts and losses during sixty-six years were less than $20 all told.

The Functions of a Credit Union

1. It encourages thrift by providing a safe, convenient, and attractive medium for the investment of savings by its members through the purchase of shares and the deposit of small savings.

2. It promotes industry and enterprise by enabling its members to borrow for productive purposes, and upon occasion for emergency purposes.

3. It eliminates usury by providing its members when in urgent need with credit at a reasonable cost—which they could not otherwise obtain.

4. It teaches its members how capital is assembled, managed, safeguarded and multiplied by useful employment; it teaches business methods,

self-government and self-reliance; it develops in them a sense of social responsibility and educates them to a full realization of the value of coöperation, thereby making of them better citizens and winning for them the confidence of their fellow-citizens.

Principles of Organization

A coöperative credit union is based on two business principles, (1) one-man one-vote, and (2) patronage dividends as well as dividends on stock or shares owned. These two principles sharply distinguish a coöperation from a corporation. All members share equally in privileges and ratably in profits. Profits are rated according to holdings of paid-up shares, and also according to the business the coöperators do with the union. In voting each member has one vote, no matter how many shares he owns. In North Carolina the liability of members is the usual liability of bank stock owners under the laws of the state; not the unlimited liability joint and several of credit unions in the old world countries.

Any number of persons may combine to organize a credit union in a city, town, or rural community having a common bond or community interest. Qualifications for membership are based upon good moral character, and reputation for honesty, sobriety and habits of industry. The larger the membership the better, provided the members know intimately the character, reputation, and needs of one another. Entrance fees are ten cents a share or more according to the value of the share.

The par value of shares is low ranging usually from five dollars to twenty-five dollars, so that no eligible person shall be deprived of membership or the full privileges of membership. Payments for shares are made on the installment plan either weekly or monthly, as the member may choose. This method of payment is used to encourage members to purchase as many shares as possible. The members are usually people who have but small available means at any one time and who quite frequently need to borrow small amounts to tide them over for productive enterprises, or sudden emergencies. They are usually without credit of any other sort or must pay impossible interest rates for money—as for instance the cropper who pays to the supply-merchant compound interest on his loan and still larger interest exacted in the time-prices charged for his purchases during the growing season.

Our town and country tenants with their families number 1,380,000 people in North Carolina. The people who need coöperative credit unions are the landless and homeless, the small wage and salary earners who otherwise might never have a chance to learn the value of coöperation and the inspiration to be derived from mutual helpfulness. They need to be systematically taught the lessons of industry, thrift, sagacity, sobriety, integrity, and courage. These are the virtues that will enable them to establish their own credit and to become stable and responsible home-owning citizens.

The capital such people can create will at first be small, but the joint effort will gradually establish a reputation for moral and financial trustworthiness. This fact is shown in a report published iu The Survey of November 12, 1921. "In spite of unusual and general financial disturbances," says Dr. Edward A. Devine, "the number of new charters issued by the bank commissioners of Massachusetts for coöperative credit unions last year exceeded the total for the five years previous and not a single one of the state's credit unions has liquidated or was closed. One of these unious, that operated by the telephone workers, has now over 5,000 members and its assets after four years exceed $300,000. This healthy development of a form of credit organization which in other parts of the country is as yet too little understood or appreciated is evidence that it auswers a very real need. There are slight variations in the credit union laws of the different states which, while they do not affect the general principles, adapt it to local conditions.

"In North Carolina for instance legal control is vested in the state department of agriculture, while in Massachusetts aud New York, where the membership is manifestly industrial, it rests with the commissioners of banks. How an efficieutly organized credit uuion may help in a rural community is illustrated by the work of the Carmel credit union in Durham county, North Carolina, where of about $7,500 loaned in about six months, one-third was for fertilizer, and more than a third to hold cotton against a sudden drop iu price. Substantial amounts were loaned for feed and food, livestock and milk trucks. The city employes' credit uniou of Boston which was organized in 1915, according to the report of the state bank commissioners, now has assets of $30,892. It has 914 members and makes loans to such of them as require it at eight per cent per annum and pays a six per cent dividend. Formerly they were paying interest at the rate of 180 per cent to the loan sharks, and were losing a half day each week in order to make necessary arrangements with these sharks to withdraw assignmeut of wages filed against them with the city treasurer. In addition to remedial rehabilitation loans, loans are made to small business men for the purchase of stock and for the purchase of homes.

"One of the newer loan purposes that is gaining in popularity is the educational loau. College tuitiou fees, for iustance, figure in the account of the Carmel credit union meutioned above. Helping young men and women through technical aud uormal schools or an ambitious wage-earner to take a course in law or science is a credit operation which, though not yet as frequent, shows a new direction in which this primarily economic movement tends to make for social as well as individual welfare."

The North Carolina Idea

Although Massachusetts was the pioneer in the United States in adopting credit union laws, North Carolina devised the first progressive legal program of farm credits of the short-term, personal-loan character. The

McRae credit union law of 1915 gives to credit unions the sanction of law, creates a superintendent of coöperative associations and credit unions, with such assistants as may be necessary. The business of the credit union superintendent is to organize coöperative groups, to furnish all necessary legal and business forms, to conduct a campaign of education and promotion, to visit interested localities upon request, to supervise and once a year or oftener to audit the accounts of such associations. This officer belongs to the division of markets operating under the joint committee of the State Farm Extension Bureau, the State Board of Agriculture, and the State College of Agriculture and Engineering. No additional tax levies are made for his salary, as it comes from the funds of the committee.

In North Carolina coöperative credit unions are the special charge and concern of the agricultural authorities of the state and it is due to this fact that the movement in this state has made greater headway among the farmers than in any other state where the laws do not require such supervision. In other states wage earners and people on small salaries have begun to organize credit unions in towns and cities. But outside of North Carolina there are very few rural credit unions, the farmers not having yet learned the necessity or the advantage of group credit. Farmers are slow to trust their fellowmen in common community business enterprises. North Carolina ranks first in the number of farm credit unions in the United States. The last report from the capitol shows thirty-three farm credit unions, with 1,400 members, $20,000 of share capital, $50,000 in deposits, $90,000 in loans, and resources of nearly $100,000.

A Safe Business Organization

Coöperative credit unions are self-financing savings and mutual-aid organizations which encourage and reward thrift and capitalize the character of its membership. They operate upon the capital accumulated by the thrift of the members and increased by the business management of the association. The operating capital and guaranty funds are created by payments on membership shares, by deposits received, by profits on loans to members at a low rate of interest, by interest on reserve and guaranty funds deposited in banks on savings account, by profits arising from the compounding of interest in the business of small, low-rate, short-term loans to members; by entrance fees and transfer fees; and by fines and penalties.

Farm credit unions are less than ten years old in North Carolina. Their capital, resources and loans are an insignificant detail of the total farm credit needed by our farmers. Farm credit unions were insignificant in number and strength in Europe sixty years ago, but they grew into large proportions and practically solved the credit difficulties of the peasant farmers. And it can be so in North Carolina in the next quarter or half century. Potentially they are worth all the farm land banks

of the country, the relief of tenant farmers considered. Their organization ought to be pushed far harder than our state officials have done during these last seven years.

The first credit unions to be formed among the farmers of the United States were organized by the Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Society of New York. This society organized unions in four North Atlantic states. In 1913 their membership was 547, their total capital $10,000, and the loans among themselves $73,624. The borrowers paid only six per cent upon their loans and the eighteen unions averaged thirteen and a fourth per cent upon the capital invested.

The Necessity for Credit Unions

Our present system of tenancy farming based on a crop-lien, supply-merchant system is ruinous to both tenants and merchants. It destroys the possibility of a livable farm life in tenancy areas. Dr. Branson says: "It is a cross upon which is crucified every hope of abiding farm prosperity." In the year 1921 the South produced cotton and tobacco wealth amounting to $848,000,000, but all of it and a billion dollars more went into the pockets of the middle western farmers to pay for imported feed and foodstuff. This is the penalty we pay for excessive farm tenancy, for farm tenants are cash-crop producers, not bread and meat farmers. The farm regions of the South must become self-feeding if they are ever to be self-financing; and it cannot ever be either until tenant farmers rise into home and farm ownership in larger ratios. The farm credit union is their most hopeful way of escape.

The Federal Land Bank offers relief for the land-owning farmers in long-term loans on land as a collateral, but the small farmer without property has no assured standing in banks of any sort; he must buy his supplies on crop-lien credit and the time-prices he pays are far higher than the cash-prices of customers with money in hand. The total interest he pays for operating capital forces him to live on the verge of bankruptcy and poverty, without comforts or conveniences, and with barely the necessities of life from year to year. The trouble is a lack of operating capital. As for small land-owning farmers they can borrow but little money on their lands as a rule, only for a short period, and at a ruinous rate of interest. The credit unions operating under state laws offer relief to small farmers, farm tenants, and city wage-earners by enabling them when in need of cash capital or funds to tide them over emergencies to obtain money for longer periods of time repayable, if they wish, on the installment plan and at low rates of interest.

The McRae credit unions law in North Carolina offers relief of this sort to the town and country tenants of the state. If this landless multitude are to become home-owning, home-loving, stable, responsible citizens, thrift, one of the most essential of the home-owning virtues, is a necessary beginning; and the small savings of industrious, sober people of good character must be assembled and managed in business-like ways under

the guidance of competent, friendly authority. Coöperative credit unions in North Carolina are organized, standardized, conducted under guidance, supervised, and audited under the laws of the state.

As Dr. Branson says: "We need the discipline of thrift. We need what the New England Yankees have. For instance, the bank account savings of New Hampshire alone were larger in 1915 than the sums deposited on savings account in banks of all sorts in the entire South. There are savings banks in the South and savings departments in almost every bank; but not a single mutual savings bank in any Southern state." Hence the necessity for a credit system that will encourage thrift and saving on part of small farmers, farm tenants, and weekly wage earners. The coöperative credit union fills the bill and supplies this necessity. There are many farmers, who realize the importance of improving their equipment and bettering their farming methods, but who lack the capital with which to make the desired changes. Their honesty and industry may be unquestioned, but their individual security does not command the desired confidence. In a credit union the security they offer is that of the union as a whole, and it is security that has proven safe and satisfactory for more than a half century abroad and for a dozen years or more in America.

Carolina Credit Unions

The first credit union in North Carolina was organized at Lowe's Grove, Durham county, on December 10, 1915, with twelve members. One year later this credit union had twenty-six members and total resources of $1,602.

The report of the State Superintendent of Coöperative Enterprise, on November 15, 1920, shows that there are now thirty-three credit unions in North Carolina, with 1,388 members; with $21,216 paid in on shares, with deposits amounting to $50,824.00; and total resources $99,764.

These farmers have learned to trust one another, to conduct their farms on a business basis, and they are realizing that coöperation need not remain a resource of the industrial world alone, but that it also has a place in the business and the social life of the farm regions. It cannot longer be dispensed with or neglected if the country community is to be a safe place in which to rear a family and to breed democratic citizenship. The resources of farmers must be assembled and loaned among themselves for farm improvement and equipments under proper credit union laws, by properly managed credit unions. With local interest rates of six per cent paid in and four per cent dividends paid back, the farmers can at last have cheap money for farm operations.

Negro Credit Unions

Four of the credit unions in North Carolina—the Piedmont, Franklin, Cleveland and Gold Hill unions—are composed of 161 negro members. On February 20, 1920, their total payments on shares amounted to $1,355.15; their deposits $520.15; their loans $1,015.95; and their resources

$1,095.90; their depositors numbering only seven and their borrowers only twenty; which shows that the colored people are slowly but surely learning to trust one another and are willing to try out as their faith increases the credit machinery they have established.

The credit union at Gold Hill has no depositors and no borrowers. No one is benefited by such an organization, no service is being rendered and no dividends are being received. The union with the most members, depositors, and borrowers, the largest deposits and the largest loans, is the union that earns the largest dividends and most nearly fulfills the purposes for which it was organized.

The Carolina negroes have made a beginning that is creditable to them even though they are feeling their way cautiously, and if their faith insures a tenacious clinging to the small credit machinery they have set to work and if it instills within them a greater trustworthiness, the colored tenant farmers in North Carolina will in no small numbers rise from tenancy into farm-owning negroes within the present generation.

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February 27, 1922.

CO-OPERATIVE MARKETING

J. Osler Bailey, Wake County

During the last few months we have been studying the town and country tenant in North Carolina and the United States. We have seen that he is a problem; in 1920, 52.6 per cent of the people in North Carolina were landless and homeless—that is, they lived in other people's houses and cultivated other people's land. Such a figure as this is appalling when we consider its essential significance. A man who does not own a home, or any land, or anything under the sun, except clothes, household goods and utensils, and perhaps a few other personal effects, may be a producing creature of the draft animal variety, but he cannot grow into the full stature of robust citizenship. The papers that have already been presented to the club bring out the facts and figures about tenancy in its various aspects. Let me recall to your minds some of the things that we have discovered in our study of this question.

The first thing about the landless, homeless estate of men—and the worst thing—is that it tends to reproduce itself. In former papers it has been shown that a man, once a tenant, tends to remain a tenant. He does not live anywhere, at least not for long. His children grow up ignorant and, consequently, shiftless. His government means little to him, for he has little or no property. He contributes little or nothing to the support of the state. He has little property to be protected by it. He is in danger of becoming a parasite upon society. Segregated in mill villages, he is ready to be incited to riot against a government that he has no reason to reverence. He does not, as a rule, go to church. And, worst of all, his children, not having a helping hand to any other station in life, grow up to be like him. All these things have been plainly brought out in former studies.

Among other arresting facts, the one that startles me most is the fact that the ratio of tenancy in North Carolina steadily increases. It could be explained if the number of tenants grew, while the percentage of tenancy in the population remained the same. But tenancy, as a condition of life, is growing in North Carolina—and, of course, there must be a cause for it somewhere. In large measure that cause can be found in the general poverty of farmers in our state. For instance, a bad market year comes. Crops may be good, a man may have worked hard and produced a record crop, but, as was the case two years ago, prices may be so low that when he has sold his crop the best he could, he still finds that when he has paid for his farm and household supplies, there is nothing left—with winter ahead of him. Perhaps he mortgages his home; perhaps he sells out at once. At any rate, sooner or later, we find him in the factory village, or on someone else's farm, and another member has been enrolled on the list of the homeless in North Carolina. And we cannot blame the man. Honestly, we cannot. He did his best,

but he was not able to make ends meet. But we can blame the system. Any system is wrong in which a man gives the sweat of his brow to production, and gets from that system less than a living.

We turn at once to his marketing. How did he sell his products? Did he get a fair price for them? Who fixed the price? And the answer to all of those questions is just this: When the farmer's cotton and tobacco were in condition for the market, he hauled them to town and plaintively asked the buyers: "What will you give me for them?" This is what actually happened. There was no alternative. The farmer had to have the money. He simply could not hold his crops until the market was less flooded. But when he went to pay for the fertilizer he used in making his cotton and tobacco, he didn't find the merchant saying to him: "What will you give me for this fertilizer?" On the contrary the merchant named his own price and the farmer had to pay the merchant's price. Thus the farmer is at the mercy of both the buyers and the merchants. He becomes poorer; the cotton brokers and the merchants grow richer. As a result he sells or is tempted to sell his farm and become a tenant farmer, or a worker in a mill. The dealer sells the farmer cotton goods for many times the price he paid for the farmer's raw cotton. The farmer pays—all around, the farmer pays. While the merchants become merchant-princes, and the merchant-princes become royal millionaires, the farmer pays. Much of this is inevitable; but the farmer's share of the consumer's dollar is so small that the farmer has at last organized in rightful self-defense.

Only when the farmer can get a decent price for his produce—and by a decent price I mean enough to buy the necessities of life and a few of its luxuries over and above expenses—will the tenant hordes stop growing. When the dealer is forced—he never will unless he is forced—to pay a decent price for farm produce, then our farmers will no longer have to sell their farms. Large land owners and poverty stricken tenants will disappear together; our state and all our Southland will become a land of home-owning, home-loving, self-feeding, self-financing, and self-governing people—a land of milk and honey, peace and plenty, a land of rural comradeship and beauty.

Coöperative Marketing and Farm Ownership

Coöperative marketing has been proposed as a means of enabling our farmers (1) to retain a righteous share of the wealth they produce, as a condition precedent to a prosperous agriculture, (2) to accumulate surpluses under the discipline of business-like organization and method, as merchants do, and (3) to invest their savings in homes and farms. In the tobacco and marketing organization recently effected in this and other Southern states tenants may enjoy, if they will, the opportunities of their landlords; but even with surpluses in hand the tenants say they can buy no land in our leading cash-crop counties. "No tenant, white or black, can buy land in Scotland county," said a tenant in 1919; "we can't do anything with our money but throw it away having a good time while it lasts."

It is generally true that agricultural depression bears down hard on landlords and tenants, but hardest of all on tenants; and coöperative farm enterprise is the only way out for either tenants or owners.

Primarily, coöperative marketing is designed for the purpose of helping the farmer get more for his crops—a decent price, in other words. It is designed to stabilize the market for farm products. It is designed to put the dealer's profits in proper measure into the pockets of the producers. As to whether or not it will do all of these things, we shall see in this discussion. Since we are most interested in the coöperative marketing of cotton and tobacco—our great North Carolina cash crops—let us study the forms of coöperative marketing associations proposed for these two crops in North Carolina. I shall take up and explain, as simply as possible, the coöperative commodity marketing associations as they have recently begun to do business in this state.

In the first place, coöperative marketing is not a new-fangled scheme for selling crops; it is not an untried system. For sixty years or more the farmers of Denmark have successfully marketed their crops coöperatively. In our own United States, the fruit growers of California have been marketing their lemons, oranges, nuts, olives, prunes and raisins in this way, for twenty-five years or more. Through these years the farmers in Denmark and the growers in California have been working out a successful system, and it is this system that is now offered to our North Carolina farmers. It is a highly perfected, well-seasoned, and efficient business organization for marketing farm crops.

The plan is just this: The coöperative associations are divided into as many separate units as there are different crops to be marketed. Each crop has its own separate and distinct organization. For instance, the tobacco association is entirely separate and distinct from the cotton growers' association, though a man may belong to both if he grows both crops. Nevertheless the organizations are as distinct as the Baptist and Methodist churches.

However, the cotton, tobacco, and peanut associations are so nearly alike in their method of organization, their purposes, and their results, that by studying one we can get a clear conception of each. Therefore, I shall take up, as an example, the principal type of associations in North Carolina—the cotton association.

Membership in the cotton association is limited to the original sellers of cotton; that is, only the actual growers may belong; the actual growers—tenants or landlords—who sell their own cotton, and the landlords who received cotton in payment of rent. A landlord who does not raise cotton, and whose rent is paid in money, cannot belong—he has no cotton to sell. The marketing association is a purely business organization the sole aim and idea of which is to sell cotton. The motto of the association is: Organized for Business. The association is made up of farmers, but must not be confused with the farmers' union, or any such organization. A cotton marketing association does nothing but sell the cotton of its members.

The members join the association simply by signing a contract which says that for a period of five years they will sell their cotton only through the association. The contract which they sign is legal and binding; it has gone through the courts many times and has been sustained. It is absolutely necessary to have the members sign a binding contract, because the directors of the association must know before selling time that they will have a definite volume of cotton to sell. In this way and on this basis an association can arrange beforehand to conduct its business. The members must sign for as much as five years, because it is necessary to be able to employ really able and competent men to carry on the business of the association and to establish business connections for the sale of the crop far in advance of the market season.

The business end of the association is managed by a board of directors. These are competent experts whose sole business is selling the cotton of the members of the association. The method of organization is this: A few leaders in North Carolina farm affairs form themselves into an organization committee. They secure members. When the members are secured, the association is legally incorporated and chartered. Then the state is divided into ten districts, and from each district the members elect one director. The voting is done by the members at a regular, organized election, either in person or by mail. Each member has one vote. Thus there are ten directors for the state. They must be members of the association, with their own cotton pooled with the rest, so that whatever they do will be done for their own benefit as well as for the benefit of all the others. These directors will be held legally responsible, just as are the directors of any corporation, to the members. The associations are as much legal corporations as any other kind of corporation.

There are small fees charged to the members when they sign the contract. These fees are for the purpose of paying for the actual expenses of organization. This is the only way the organizers have of raising money for such a purpose, and if there is money left over, it goes into the treasury of the association when it is organized. The organization committee go out of existence on the election of a board of directors, and the directors take charge of the association's business.

There is no capital stock, and the associations are run without profit. Whatever the crop sells for, after actual selling expenses are paid, is divided among the members in proportion to the amount and quality of cotton sold for each member. The purpose is not to make a profit for an owner or a board of directors; the owners are members, and the directors are salaried employees. The pupose is to sell the crop of each of its members for the highest possible prices. The association itself will grade the cotton, in order to insure fair grading to the grower. For instance, there will be one grade for middling cotton and seven-eighths inch staple, one for middling cotton and one inch staple, and one for middling cotton and one and one-eighth inch staple, and so on. Each of these grades is to be sold separately, and the selling price paid to the grower who delivered that particular grade of cotton, less the actual expenses of grading, warehousing, and selling.

The association, through the directors, will employ expert graders, warehousemen, and sellers. Thus the graders, warehousemen, and sellers will be experts employed by the growers, and not, as the case is now, men employed by the buyers.

When the crop has been delivered to the association, it is graded and warehoused, and then sold as the sellers see fit in large lots to manufacturers, exporters, and general buyers of the crop. The aim is to sell the crop gradually throughout the year. This is the way the manufacturers and exporters call for the crop. This will do away with the present system of dumping the whole crop on the market at once and thus overflowing the market and lowering the price. Then, if there is to be a carry-over of one year's crop to the next, the growers will know about it, and will plan their crops accordingly.

The growers will be paid for their crops as they are sold. Thus, if one-twelfth of a particular grade of cotton is sold each month, then the grower who has that grade of cotton will receive each month just one-twelfth of the payment for his entire crop of this particular grade. While this system has its disadvantages, it has the advantage of insuring an all-the-year-round income, which enables the farmer to arrange to pay his debts from time to time throughout the year, instead of in a lump in the fall, as at present. Regular warehouse receipts are issued for cotton delivered, and if the farmer desires, he may get a loan when he delivers the cotton, to the amount of at least fifty per cent of a conservative estimate on the market value of his cotton. The association arranges for these loans through the local banks, the federal reserve bank, and so forth. The farmer has only to use his warehouse receipts which are acceptable collateral in any money market.

Experience has shown in crop associations elsewhere that little trouble is found in financing the associations. There is no trouble on this score in California. It is certain that this scheme will work in the case of cotton, for it is a non-perishable crop, it is universally used, and there is no other quantity crop to take its place. For these reasons, it is the best of all crops upon which to secure loans, and there is little or no doubt about financing the associations when they are properly organized.

Bankers, almost to a man, are behind the coöperative marketing movement in North Carolina. I will quote, as an instance, from a letter from Mr. B. F. Reynolds, of the Bank of Rockingham, to B. W. Kilgore, Director of the North Carolina Extension Service, and one of the leaders in coöperative marketing in North Carolina:

"At this time, I know of no proposition which holds for the farmers any hope or prospect for success in farming in the South other than the coöperative marketing movement.

"I have investigated the principle and operation of this movement sufficiently to convince me that it is right and workable. I am writing you, therefore, to say that I am heartily in favor of it and hope to see it succeed."

In fact, business men and leading farmers all over North Carolina—and the whole South for that matter—heartily endorse this movement. The farm papers are for it; the State Departments of Agriculture are behind it; rural economists everywhere hail the plan with joy.

It is proposed to make this association a reality. In fact, it is already a reality. Farm papers and county weeklies, the state extension service, and the leaders throughout the state have put their best efforts into making it a success. Aaron Sapiro, attorney for many of the California associations, has been in North Carolina on a speech-making tour for the association. There has been speech-making and canvassing at every important farmers' meeting in North Carolina for the last year. The only real factors against the association are the ignorant farmer and the middleman. Of course, the opposition of the middlemen is inevitable for they will be out of a job when the association sells cotton direct to the manufacturers and exporters; but every possible effort has been made to reduce ignorance to a minimum among farmers in regard to coöperative marketing. An effort is being made to canvass absolutely every farm in North Carolina before July 1, 1922.

The farmers join readily enough; in fact they are justly afraid of losing money if they stay out. So there is every indication that the plan will work.

The vast successes of the coöperative marketing associations in Denmark and California are too well known for it to be necessary to say much about them. The simple fact is that in Denmark and California coöperative marketing has been tried out and proven to be a success beyond any possible doubt.

And now as to its success in North Carolina. It has already succeeded. Without bothering you with endless statistics, the North Carolina associations have signed up enough members to control practically the 1922 crop of both cotton and tobacco. In fact, about seventy-five per cent of the 1922 crop is legally released to the market associations. As the success of the plan becomes more and more apparent the remaining farmers will line up with the association.

The big outstanding advantage of coöperative marketing is that farmers get more for their crops when they sell collectively in large quantities; they control the market and have a proper part in establishing their own prices. In short, by doing business in this way, the farmer gets a square deal; he does away with unnecessary middlemen and speculators; he gets the middleman's profit for himself. It's a safe proposition all around. The farmer takes the control of the market out of the hands of the dealers and holds the control of it in his own hands. Furthermore, he knows the demand—the actual, not the speculative demand—for cotton from time to time; the cotton is held over for him by the association, if necessary, and he governs the size of his crop accordingly.

It is certainly a sane method of marketing crops, and we have seen that it has worked with marvelous results everywhere that it has been tried. As a result the farmers get more money for their crops and the

growers for their fruits. In Denmark, where crops have been marketed coöperatively for sixty years, there are no poor white farmers—just as there are no extremely wealthy middlemen speculators. As we have seen in a former paper, there is little tenancy in Denmark or in California—almost none at all in Denmark.

Coöperative marketing along with coöperative credit unions solved the tenancy problem in Denmark. It gave the Danish farmer a living price for his crops and made it unnecessary for him to sell his farm and go to work as a tenant or mill hand in order to live. It has solved the problem in California. Just here I want to quote a few words from a speech made by Aaron Sapiro, attorney for a number of coöperative marketing associations in California.

"The bankers, the business men, aud the farmers are prosperous in California, and it is not due to the climate. It is due to coöperation.

"The Texas cotton crop is worth every year more than the entire agricultural output of California. Yet our rural conditions are a generation ahead of yours. Of the 1,500,000 women and children working in the fields of the United States, more than a million work in the cotton patch. You produce an article which is non-perishable. It is in demand in every country and good at any bank in the world, yet you cotton farmers have less than $500 per family for your year's work. Why? Because you have been making paupers of yourselves while you make millionaires in England and New England."

Coöperative marketing has lifted the farmers above the poverty line in California. It has made Denmark a land of happy home-owners. There is no reason under the sun why coöperative marketing will not have results in North Carolina as striking as those in Denmark and California.

Today the farmers of North Carolina are organizing to sell cotton and tobacco. Under their plan they cannot be helpless victims of fate as they were two years ago. They propose to be masters of their fate and not underlings. Of course time alone can tell, but experience elsewhere leads us to prophesy success—whole and complete.

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BUILDING AND LOAN ASSOCIATIONS AS AN AID TO HOME AND FARM OWNERSHIP

J. P. TROTTER, Charlotte, N. C.

The problem of providing homes and homesteads for people of moderate means is yearly becoming more difficult. For, besides the ever increasing cost of land, labor, and materials, there is a puzzling economic law that the more populous and prosperous a community becomes the fewer are the people who live under their own roofs, and the larger the number of farmers who till the land owned by an overlord. Social scientists realize that this tendency, which has been called a law, is dangerous to the welfare of a people, and statesmen appreciate the danger to a democratic commonwealth of having a great percentage of the population living on property the title to which is in a landlord. The problem presents this question: How can an industrious, honest, and sober man of moderate means buy a home under the stringent economic life which modern times present?

The means to secure this desirable end is not that of educating the tenant so that he may see the manifold blessings of home ownership. Every tenant sees them, and there are few tenants, no matter how poor their present condition, who do not aspire to own some day the home they live in and to be able to call the land they till their own "to have and to hold forever." What is needed to solve the alarming housing shortage of today, and to put tenants in freehold possession of their homes, is an adequate credit system. A credit system to be suitable to the needs of the American tenant must have these features: first, loans must not be made to depend upon collateral security that is triple the value of the loan; second, the credit must extend over a long period of time; third, the interest charges on the loan must be reasonable.

Their Origin

Many efforts have been made to devise such a credit system, for the need has been acutely felt for a long time. The first practical attempt ever made was the establishment of the Landschaften Banks in Germany about the middle of the 18th century. These land banks were established by Frederick the Great at the close of the Seven Years War. The estates of the nobles were lying waste, for want of capital, and the serfs were in a miserable condition. To relieve this condition Frederick caused these land loan banks to be established all over Germany. The nobles were forced to join, whether or not they wished to borrow, and all the lands were made jointly liable for the debts of the members which were secured by mortgages on the combined estates of the members of the Landschaften. It was in the Landschaften that the practice of paying off loans by amortization, or small payments over a long period of time, was started. Later membership in the Landschaften became optional, and the privilege of membership was seized on by peasant as well as prince. Today the bonds

of the coöperative land and loan banks of Europe are considered one of the best forms of conservative investment. The desirability of these bonds as a form of investment enables European land-owners to secure loans at a rate of interest of from 3.5 per cent to 5.5 per cent, and they can have from fifty to seventy years in which to liquidate their debts. It was from these banks that all our modern coöperative loan associations have sprung. Building and Loan Associations, Land and Loan Associations, Credit Unions, and Morris Plan Banks all embody one or more of the features of the old Landschaften Banks of Germany. It is these agencies that are today working wonders to make home ownership and farm improvement a reality of today rather than a phantom of the future.

First in rank of usefulness so far among these coöperative savings and loan associations is the American Building and Loan Association. The first building and loan association ever established was in a suburb of Philadelphia about 1831. The benefits from the association quickly became known and similar ones sprang up throughout the nation. By the year 1893 there were in the United States 5,598 such associations with a membership of 1,745,725. Speaking of these "unique private banking businesses" the Federal Commissioner of Labor said in his report on building and loan associations in 1893, "These private corporations doing a semi-banking business, conducted by men not trained as bankers, offer a study in finance not equaled by any other institutions."

Their Rapid Increase

His report reveals the fact that in 1893 there were in North Carolina only twenty-five building and loan associations, with a membership of less than seven thousand. In 1904 there were 41 associations. That number jumped to one hundred and thirty-eight by 1914. During the same ten-year period the total assets of the North Carolina Building and Loan Associations swelled from $2,500,000 to $12,292,000. The 1920 census shows the growth of the building and loan associations in North Carolina exceeded in only three states of the Union in the ten-year period from 1910 to 1920. In January 1922 there were one hundred and eighty-six associations composed of 64,000 members, with assets of $29,608,632.

The 1922 World's Almanac shows that the North Carolina associations rank 18th among the states in the amount of their assets. The report made of building and loan associations by the North Carolina Commissioner of Insurance for the year 1920 shows that the installments paid in that year were in excess of the ten million dollar mark, of which $1,071,794 was paid into one association in Charlotte. The total amount of money borrowed through the associations that year was over three million dollars, and the total income of the associations was $16,816,000. At the end of the year there were 831,404 one-hundred-dollar shares being carried in the state.

What do all these figures mean? They mean that building and loan associations are doing a great deal to allay the housing problem in North Carolina. Let us look into the workings of these associations, and see just how it is that they operate.

Business Principles Involved

"A building and loan association," says Charles N. Thompson, "is a private corporation designed for the accumulation by the members of their money by periodical payments into its treasury, to be invested from time to time in loans to the members upon real estate for home purposes." In simple terms a building and loan associatiou is a society the purpose of which is to enable men of small means to secure homes for themselves, or to save their earnings in a good investment. Iu a word a building and loan association is a coöperative savings and loan association. Part of the members join to make weekly deposits on shares of stock which usually yields them 6 per cent interest. The others may borrow money from the association with which to build houses; they have over six years in which to repay the loans, and as there are no profits except between the members, their net interest charges are very small—abont 3½ per cent. And these self-help societies accomplish their purpose. They furnish a safe meaus for the accumulation of savings, and give their members an opportunity to secure money at very reasonable rates for the erection of homes.

The method of organization and the operation of the business are looked on by some as some sleight-of-hand-trick, but as a matter of fact the matter is simple. A number of people who want a safe investment for their weekly or monthly savings join themselves with neighbors who wish to borrow money with which to build homes. All the members of the credit association take as many shares as they can carry, after an initial working capital has been subscribed by such members as can pay for their shares in advance. The borrowers' shares mature at once, and they get the par value of their shares in the form of a loan, which they repay with interest.

The Legal Basis in North Carolina

The state legislature, realizing the value to the people of coöperative credit unions, has enacted very favorable laws regarding their organization. To prevent spurious organizations from defrauding the people the law provides that no society shall hold itself out as a building and loau association unless organized under the laws regulating them (Consolidated Statutes, sec. 5169). The laws further provide that the officers of the associations shall be amenable to the State Commissioner of Insurance for any irregularity in the conduct of the association. The legislature has made shares of building and loan stock exempt from taxation. The co-operative character of the organizations, and the small margins from which operating expenses must be taken have caused mauy states to free the associations from taxation altogether. Our legislature should let nothing keep it from following their lead.

The North Carolina statutes permit any persons in any city, town, or county to organize for the purpose of establishing a homestead and building and loan association, and to the organizations is giveu the right to make by-laws for the regulation of the society, and to regulate the number and value of shares to be issued and the amount and time of the install-

ments to be paid on subscribed shares. Appreciating the benefits to members, the law makers have framed the statutes so that married women and minors may be members with full privileges. By the law members of a board of directors of a building and loan association cannot vote themselves loans; and since they must be shareholders—and all shareholders share alike in both profits and losses—this keeps the directors from making risky loans.

The Business Method

The method of conducting business is this: A number of citizens decide to organize a building and loan association. From their number they elect officers for the corporation and select a board of directors. Each member must subscribe to shares of stock. These shares of stock may be set at any figure as the par value. In North Carolina the associations have a uniform par value of one hundred dollars per share. Some of the members are "borrowing members." That is, as soon as enough subscribed stock has been paid in, the directors vote loans to such members as desire them. The other members are "savings members." These are the ones who join the associations in order to accumulate their weekly savings and get 6 per cent interest on them. They pay in each week or month a certain part of their subscribed shares, usually twenty-five cents a week for each share of stock. Thus, if a member is "carrying" ten shares of stock he pays in $2.50 each week. At frequent times these installments are added together and the interest is compounded. The par value of the member's ten shares is one thousand dollars. When the paid-in installments plus the interest on them amounts to one thousand dollars, his stock matures and in a lump sum he gets one thousand dollars. Ordinarily it takes between six and six and one-half years for the shares to mature. The saving member has paid in about $840 for which he is returned one thousand dollars. Is it any wonder that thousands of industrious workers eagerly subscribe to this as the choicest form of investment? But it is not only the foregoing advantages which building and loan stock offers to the wage-earner or salaried man. He may subscribe to the stock and if circumstances make him feel that he needs his paid-in installments elsewhere, he may withdraw his money at any time. If he has paid his installments for a year or more they will be repaid to him with interest if he wishes to withdraw. Let us sum up the advantages building and loan stock offers to the investor: absolute security—for the association's money is loaned only on real estate at two-thirds its value; tax exemption; 6 per cent interest; the necessity of saving regularly—for the installments must be paid each week or month, as the case may be; permission to withdraw his installments at any time—which is just as good as ordinary preferred stock in any corporation—but in a building and loan association it has the advantage of never going below par; and last is the fact that money may be borrowed on paid installments.

The shares of the borrowing member mature immediately when the loan is granted to him. He asks for a loan and the directors give it to him, taking as security a first mortgage on the lot on which he is to build his house, plus the added security of his shares, which are pledged to the association. As a concrete example, suppose A wishes to build a $5,000 home on a $1,000 lot he owns. The total value of the property will be $6,000. He joins a building and loan association and asks for a loan. The directors will grant him a loan of two-thirds the value of the house and lot when completed. That gives him $4,000. The other $1,000 necessary he must get from another source, as by getting a loan and giving a second mortgage on the premises. To get the $4,000 loan he must subscribe to forty shares of stock, which will cost him $40 a month plus 6 per cent interest on the loan. But from this 6 per cent interest is deducted the interest on the share installments he pays in. This makes interest charges amount to about 3½ per cent. So A living happily is paying for his house at less-than-rent installments. And in six and a half years it will be his own. Paying $50 a month rent for a house is like dropping money in a hole in the ground, but $50 a month will buy a house just as easily if the tenant is thrifty. So the advantages of borrowing through a building and loan association are seen to be: an extremely low rate of interest; the payment of the principal over a long period of time; and the payment of both principal and interest not in lump sums but in small installments which in fact are less than the rent on the same dwelling would be.

Is it any wonder that the growth of these associations has been phenomenal? Each year hundreds of families in North Carolina are moving into homes of their own—to be paid for, in a way which is a mystery to many of the buyers themselves, "by the building and loan."

These philanthropic organizations are getting much recognition from all who are interested in community welfare.

The papers constantly remind the public of the good they are doing and the possibilities they hold open to investors and borrowers alike. W. W. Nelson writing in the Washington Post of November 1, 1921, said, "Anything that works toward producing homes for working people and others of limited means should be encouraged, and that is why building and loan associations should be encouraged. To begin with, they are purely coöperative organizations—associations of mutual help. When functioning under proper auspices and protection they do a great service to humanity." The editor of the Morganton News Herald recently said, "Possibly no other organization in Morganton has had a more active part in the progress of the town than the Morganton Building and Loan Association. It would be hard to conceive of how the town would get along without the building and loan association. Hundreds of homes have been erected with the aid furnished by this means." This wide-awake editor goes on further to point out the need of an increase in the number of investors. She says, "Applications are in now for loans that in the natural course of things cannot be granted before next spring."

Everywhere throughout the state a lively interest is being taken in building and loan associations as an agency in solving the housing problem. The manufacturers of High Point are at the present time prosecuting a vigorous "own-your-own-home campaign," by encouraging and helping their employees to build through the building and loan association. A correspondent of the Greensboro Daily News, while appreciating the fact that he could buy a home easier through the building and loan than he can pay rent, bewails the fact that he cannot get a loan for over a year under present conditions of the local associations. And so it is well that the editors of the state should remind their patrons that "the easiest, simplest and least expensive way of getting under one's own roof-tree is to get into a well managed building and loan association." It is right that they should impress upon the clientele they serve the splendid investment that building and loan stock is for the conservative investor of capital, whether an industrious wage-earner or any other capitalist.

Their Use in the Farm Regions

There is, however, a matter which neither the newspapers nor the people of the state at large have taken cognizance of. That is, the fact that land and loan associations as provided for in our state laws can be made just as active and potent a factor in relieving tenancy in the rural districts as the building and loan associations are in the towns and cities. To prove that this is possible it is only necessary to point to the growth in number and extent of service of the associations operating in Ohio, the pioneer state in this field of finance. In 1913 there were 7,760 loans made by building and loan associations to farmers in that state. The amount of the loans was $15,304,808. In 1921—eight years later—12,955 loans were made, the total amount of which was $42,709,568. It is true that conditions are somewhat different in Ohio from what they are in North Carolina. There the associations in the towns and cities have a surplus of funds which they are glad to lend on farm mortgages, while in North Carolina the urban loan associations can never meet the demands made on them by members in the city. But there is no reason why the farmers of a community cannot pool their savings and lend them to their less fortunate neighbors since they will get ample returns from their investment. Under our state laws the rural loan associations are permitted to make loans for the purchase of or improvements on farm lands on personal security or realty collateral, whereas the urban associations can, according to the statute, lend only on realty as collateral. Colonel J. R. Young, formerly State Insurance Commissioner, is devoting much of his time to a study of rural credits. He believes that the coöperative loan associations "can, should, and would" function well in the rural districts of North Carolina. He says, "where such associations have been established they are having two good effects: the use of local capital for community needs, and also to promote thrift among the country people." Col. Young thinks thrift is a thing that is yet to be learned by a great

many of our North Carolina farmers. He further points out that in those places where land and loan or building and loan associations have been established in the rural districts money comes in in surprisingly large amounts. There is no doubt that the Raleigh gentleman is right. And it is high time the rural people stir from their century-old lethargy by seizing on this method of buying and improving the lands they till. The federal government by establishing the Federal Farm Loan Banks has taken a forward step—though a half century late—but it will probably be a long time before their business relieves rural credits to any great extent. At the present time they are making only about 14 per cent of the farm loans. In the meantime the farmer should recall the saying, "Do you need help?—then help yourself." And the coöperative savings and loan associations are the means by which he may help himself to greater prosperity and happiness.

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THE CHURCH AND LANDLESS MEN

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The Inquiry

By way of preface, let me say that after exploring the subject of Home and Farm Ownership during the first half of the college year, (1) the extent and the distribution of tenancy—rural, urban and industrial, and (2) the causes producing town and country tenancy, along with the consequences of landlessness upon personality, citizenship, social institutions, and civic structures, the North Carolina Club is now busy (3) with the personal, social-economic, and civic remedies—the self-help agencies, the state-aid remedies, along with the federal-aid policies and plans that are now being considered by Congress.

The effects of tenancy upon town and country churches have been considered in various club reports and discussions. We have seen how the church in farm areas and in city centers suffers from the landless, propertyless estate of tenants and renters, the restless, roving, irresponsible spirit it produces, and the effect of it upon church support, church membership ratios, church attendance and church conditions in general. My particular subject, however, concerns the relation of the church to these landless men; the duties, opportunities, and privileges of the church as it confronts the paradox of 100,000 vacant unused town lots, 22 million idle wilderness acres of farm land, and 1,380,000 landless, homeless souls in North Carolina. What can the fifty organized religious bodies of North Carolina do about it? How can they help tenants and renters to rise into home and farm ownership? Is the landless, homeless condition of 1,380,000 people in North Carolina any concern of the church? Has religion anything to do with this problem, and if so, what? And specifically what can Christian men and women do about it? I am merely outlining in a rough way the field I am expected to cover in this discussion.

Excessive Farm Tenancy and Country Church Decay

But first of all I want to summarize the effects upon the church of excessive tenancy, (1) in farm areas, and (2) in city centers. And I want to make it clear that city tenancy runs into far larger ratios than farm tenancy, that tenancy, heretofore considered a farm problem mainly, is even more a city problem, that city churches suffer from it as certainly as country churches do, and must therefore begin to consider it in simple self-defense, if for no other reason.

I ask in the first place, how does the country church fare in areas of excessive farm tenancy—in the cotton and tobacco belt of the South, say, and in the great corn belt of the Middle West, for these are the two farm regions most afflicted by the social ills of tenancy? We can-

not any longer be in doubt about the answer. Within the last ten years a score or more of direct field surveys have brought the facts to light. Among them are these:

In areas of excessive white farm tenancy everywhere in the United States the country church (1) is marking time or dying or has only a name to live, or (2) it is dead and abandoned. I say white tenancy areas, because negro farm tenancy seems to have little relation to church membership and attendance. Negroes are natural jiners, as we say down South, and their churches are almost their only social centers in farm regions. Besides, belonging to the church is firmly believed by them to be a satisfactory fire insurance policy for the next world, and this belief appeals as strongly to negro tenants as to negro farm owners. At all events, excessive negro tenancy does not lower church membership ratios, as excessive white tenancy does.

Does the country church dwindle in church membership, power and influence in excessive white tenancy areas? In answer witness the 700 abandoned country church buildings of one denomination in Missouri, and the 1,800 abandoned country churches of Illinois. These buildings once used for church purposes are now used as barns to house farm crops and farm animals, or as is sometimes the case they have been converted into village stores, butter factories, moving picture houses, and the like. In the old days they occasionally served as country bar-rooms.

There are fewer abandoned country church buildings in the South due to the livelier creedal faith of church members and the more robust egoism of church bodies; but here and there in every cotton and tobacco county can be found (1) feeble country churches with fewer and fewer members year by year, or (2) country churches once used by white congregations now owned and used by negroes, or (3) church buildings totally abandoned and left to rot to the ground, serving meanwhile as rendezvous for the goats and bats of the neighborhood, or for negro gambling sprees on Saturday nights and Sundays. There is one dead country church in the county in which our own University is located. It appeared on the county map of 1891; but not a trace of it can now be discovered in the neighborhood where it once stood. The survey of Benton county, Arkansas, disclosed four dead country churches. In Gibson county, a typical cotton tenancy county of West Tennessee, seven dead and abandoned country churches were found. In Clarke county, Georgia, only three white churches are left in the open country, one Primitive Baptist church, one Missionary Baptist church, and one Methodist Episcopal church; only three white country churches remain to serve the white population scattered over 110 square miles of territory; five of the eight townships are without a single white country church; only negro country churches are left in these five country townships. So it is in the cotton and tobacco counties throughout the South—in particular in the counties in which tenancy runs into ratios ranging from one-half to four-fifths of all the farmers.

Unfortunately none of the religious bodies of the South publish in their church minutes the number of country churches that have been abandoned year by year, or the totals throughout a period of years. The newly established churches are listed and the net increases in church buildings appear, but not the churches that have disbanded and disappeared from the map. They say nothing about the country churches that are dead, wounded, or missing. But the total is appalling in the 800 cotton and tobacco belt counties of the South and the roll of abandoned country churches is rapidly increasing under boll weevil conditions. The country church is in deadly peril (1) from the cityward drift of rural populations and the consequent loss of intelligent local leadership, and (2) from the inseparable social evils of tenancy, illiteracy, and poverty. I say inseparable, because they exist together; wherever you find high ratios of white farm tenancy you find high ratios of white illiteracy and poverty along with low ratios of church membership. For eight years the department of rural social-economics of the University has been making detailed studies of these three conditions in the country regions of the state, and nothing is clearer than the fact that the church must destroy tenancy and illiteracy among the whites in country areas, or tenancy and illiteracy will destroy the country church.

Landless Men and City Church Problems

But what about landless men and the church in our towns and cities? In proportion to population tenants and renters are far more numerous in urban than in rural areas. Two-thirds of the white farmers of the state own the farms they cultivate and the homes they live in; but the home owners in our fourteen cities with ten thousand or more inhabitants each are only one-third to one-fourth of the population; from two-thirds to three-fourths of all the inhabitants are tenants and renters. They are mill and factory operatives, cash-girls, saleswomen, stenographers, bookkeepers, barbers, butchers, mechanics, street hands, casual laborers, and the like. They are wage-earners and small salaried people, very few of whom own the dwellings they occupy. They are in one house or one neighborhood one day and gone tomorrow; or in one town today and in another next week. They are not identified with any community or city because they own no homes. Their children are in the day schools, but less often in the Sunday schools. If their fathers and mothers attend church services they do so infrequently and irregularly—or so as a rule. If they present their church letters and become church members, they are rare, and the oftener they move the less concerned they are about transferring their church membership. For instance, the white church members in High Point in 1918 numbered 3,581, but the church members in the city unaffiliated with any of the local churches were found to be 1,138. Which is to say, one-fourth of the total white church membership of High Point consisted of unhitched members with no obligations to support the church work of the city, many of them unconcerned about church ties and re-

ligious duties, and many more of them kicking up their heels in pagan meadows, like youug colts turned out to pasture. Almost exactly the same ratio of unaffiliated church members was found in Gastouia. So it is in every urban-industrial ceuter. The unaffiliated church members in Greensboro the same year were found to number 746. In Kinstou they found 498 white people who not only did not beloug to auy church, but who expressed no inclination toward any one of the 19 churches of that brisk little city. These are the perfectly natural result of the migratory, transitory character of landless men everywhere. It explains the steady march of Protestant churches out of the poorer city precincts where they are most needed into the richer residential areas where they can be best supported. It explains the 500 abandoned churches below 14th street in New York City. And mind you, these abandoned churches are Protestant churches; the churches that remain to minister to the Eastside and Westside tenements and slums are Catholic churches and an occasional Episcopal church. Let it be said to the honor of the Catholic church that it never abandons an unprofaned church site, no matter how poverty stricken the parishioners may become or how little they may contribute to church support.

Country Church Menaces

With these thiugs said, in prefatory way, let us pass on to consider the country church in particular.

No institution interested iu building up a rural civilization has received more attention in recent years thau the country church. Less attention has been paid to the religious life of country people than to the welfare of the institution that might best conserve this life. We must look at the country church from three angles: (1) its standing iu the community, that is, whether it is gaining grouud, standing still, or declining, (2) the menaces or hindrances to country church developmeut and usefulness, such as modern industrialism, farm tenancy and instable citizenship, illiteracy, excessive individualism, absentee preachers and once-a-month sermons, and (3) the constructive measures that must be employed, such as bringing the country people themselves to realize that the country church is in danger, the increase of home-owning farmers, an increase of country wealth and willingness to support the country church liberally, courses in rural social-economics in church schools and seminaries, country-life boards for the leadiug religious denominations, the training of home-bred leadership for country churches and Sunday schools, and the gospel of home ownership preached in every pulpit.

With this outline, let us turn to our first point. Are our country churches gaining ground, standing still, or declining? The answer is: They are growing in membership, power and influence in the cities and towns where there is a dense population, and they are growing in regions of home-owning farmers wherever the leadership is intelligent and devoted. Even in tenancy areas the country church grows under leadership of this character, and Olive's Chapel in Wake county is ample proof of this fact.

But such leaders and such churches are rare in the country regions of every state. Investigations of rural church conditions in many parts of the United States during recent years show amazingly low ratios of church membership in white farm tenancy areas where, as is nearly always the case, illiteracy ratios are high. For instance, in Ohio, ten townships of Butler county show that only 27.6 per cent of the population are church members; in thirteen townships of Darke county only 29.4 per cent, and in Clermont and Greene counties of the same state the ratios were only 32.3 per cent and 33.5 respectively. These are the figures given out by the Ohio Country Life Survey. Along with Ohio, we might see what the facts of church membership are in other states, according to the reports of the Northern Presbyterian Board of Home Missions. In Daviess county, Indiana, only 35 per cent of the people belong to the church; in Montgomery county, Maryland, only 35 per cent; in Gibson county, Tennessee, only 38 per cent. The results from all these sources indicate that the proportion of population included in country church membership falls far below the average of the United States as a whole both in 1906 and in 1916. The membership of churches in the open country has failed to gain in keeping with population increases.

Along with membership studies come studies of country church attendance. These show a distressing unconcern by farm tenants about church attendance and perhaps a growing lack of interest in religion and religious worship. Three field surveys in typical country counties in Tennessee, Arkansas and Missouri show that 54 per cent of the farm tenants never attended church services at all or only occasionally. The attendance record of farm-owners was around ninety per cent.

The Landless and the Country Church

Now let us look once more at some of the effects of town and country tenancy upon the church and the state. What is the chance to socialize, civilize, or Christianize a landless, homeless people, in any community or country, state or nation? What can be done for people who move from pillar to post under the urge of necessity or the lure of opportunity, who lack identity with the community in which they live, who feel little or no responsibility for law and order, who lack a proprietary interest in schools and churches and other agencies of progress and prosperity, welfare and well-being? The landless have no stake in the land. They have no ties of ownership and are forever seeking new fields and green pastures. On an average half the farm tenants of the South move every year. They have little chance and little inclination to affiliate with any community organization. It generally takes a tenant six months to settle down and the next six months he is thinking about moving again. "No, we don't go to no church, and the children don't go to no Sunday school nuther. We aint been here very long; we don't know nobody yit; nobody ain't ast us to go. Besides, we aint got no clothes that's fitten, and no money to put in the hat, and where we kaint pay, we don't go." This is what the

white tenants said to us in Robeson county where nearly three-fifths of all the farmers, black and white, are croppers, or crofters, as the Scotch say.

In twenty-one cotton and tobacco counties of North Carolina we have excessive farm tenancy, and excessive white illiteracy, along with very low ratios of church membership. Here are dead or dying white country churches, due to decreasing white population in country regions, to lack of interest and decreasing financial support, all of which are directly traceable to excessive farm tenancy. The state over, there are 308 country townships that are dwindling in population and in church membership. In the twenty-one counties just spoken of we find more than one-fourth of all the non-church members of the entire state, or 171,427 in all. These figures refer to people ten years of age or older. The ratios of non-church membership of these twenty-one counties range from 27 per cent in Vance to 77 per cent in Edgecombe. The people of responsible ages who do not belong to any church whatsoever range from 1,033 in Camden to 16,455 in Edgecombe. In eight of these counties more than half of the people of responsible ages are outside the church—in one county, Edgecombe, nearly four-fifths! Three-fifths of the farmers are tenants, and four-fifths of the population are outside the church—that's Edgecombe county, North Carolina, in the Year of Our Lord 1916.

Is it too much to say, that the country church must destroy farm tenancy and illiteracy, or that tenancy and illiteracy will destroy the country church? White tenancy and white illiteracy are twin-born social ills; wherever you find the one, sooner or later you find the other. Madison, Yancey and Graham illustrate this law. Once these were regions of home-owning white farmers; now from one-sixth to one-fifth of the grown men and women are illiterate, and from a fourth to a third of them are tenants and renters. Like Judah, they have gone away into economic slavery, and for exactly the same causes.

In areas of decreasing farm population, as in the North and East, we find the country church dying or already dead. In North Carolina between 1900 and 1910 eleven counties lost population and sixteen suffered retarded increases of less than five per cent. Between 1910 and 1920, nineteen counties and three hundred and eight townships lost country population. Nearly a fifth of our counties and nearly a third of our townships are areas of dying or dead country churches! This state of affairs is due to a dearth of social life in sparsely settled regions, to newly awakened discontent with tenancy, illiteracy and poverty, to the call of the crowds in our cities, to weekly wage envelopes in factory centers; and the country church takes little account of the causes that are sapping its life and strength. Country people have little chance to get together except on Saturday and Sunday, sometimes only on Sunday. The best chance for meeting one another is at Sunday school or more likely at preaching, which usually is once-a-month. During the week the people of the country are busily engaged in farming or getting ready for work. It is true they have seasons of leisure, but as a rule they remain at home. Home-owning

farmers feel that they have some interest in the church, while farm tenants as well as city tenants feel less interest or no interest at all, mainly because they have so little money with which to pay the preacher and to keep church work going. It embarrasses them, and they stay away. For the same reason they are shy of other community organizations and events, such as community singing, canning clubs, corn clubs, and the like.

The Landless and the City Church

In coming to our next point, that of modern industrialism and the city-ward drift of country populations, let us see some of the effects on city and country churches. In the last half century we have seen the effect of profit-producing machinery on the farm lands of the West. Labor-saving machinery is revolutionizing farming ideas and farm practices. Instead of the long and tedious season of soil preparation, plowing, harrowing and dragging can now be done by machinery at a more rapid rate and with less expense. Naturally the result is an excess of farm labor and the surplus tenants and hired men drift into the cities. "Farm populations," says Prof. E. C. Branson, "are driven out of our country regions as though fired out of a catapult—driven by humdrum loneliness and unrelieved monotony, by the hardships of small profits or no profits at all in farming as a business in average years, by poor roads, poor schools, and poorly supported churches, by inadequate medical service at well-nigh prohibitive prices, and so on. At the same time they are attracted into our industrial-urban centers by the lure of the crowds, by the glittering show windows and entrancing film pictures, by the weekly wage-envelope, by the chance to finger larger sums of money than they ever before dreamed of. and even more by the chance to spend money for things they never before dreamed of possessing in all their lives."

So much for the combined effect of the push-and-pull forces that play upon deep-seated human instincts. It is the inevitable result of developing industrialism in every country of Christendom. When country people get into the cities they do not as a rule line themselves up with the churches. For the last twenty years in this state we have seen industrious, thrifty, ambitious farmers leaving the country and moving into town for the school, church, and other social advantages their families could not have in the farm regions. When these thrifty farmers move out they leave renters and share-croppers in possession of the country church and its activities, and soon the church and Sunday school pass out of existence. In this way the country church loses leadership and financial support, and both are essential to its life and efficiency.

City church surveys show that only about one-fifth of the country people who move to the city ally themselves with any church, and that four-fifths of them drift away from church connections. Let me illustrate. There are eleven waitresses in one of our city hotels; all of them are bright-faced girls from one of our Piedmont counties, all of them were church members and Sunday school pupils in their country neighborhoods; in the city not

one of them goes to church. "No chance to go, no church acquaintances, and no invitations," they said. In the cityward drift of country populations, the church is losing a large proportion of the migrants. It is a great problem for city churches to solve. Here is a great work for church look-out committees busy every day of the week in the byways and hedges, not merely at the church doors on Sunday mornings.

Illiteracy and the Church

Ninety-six per cent of the white illiteracy of North Carolina is in the country regions, and 85 per cent of it is adult—that is, it is illiteracy among native-born white men and women of adult ages out in the country. Even if these people should go to church, what can they do except go through the motion of singing or of listening to the preaching or to the teaching of the Sunday school lesson? It is a painful experience for illiterates in the country church; it is unbearable in the town church.

Illiteracy must be cured; it must be cured in the country, and it must be cured in the country Sunday schools. Why not? The first Sunday school 150 years ago was an illiteracy school in Gloucester, England. Every country Sunday school can well afford to be an illiteracy school in North Carolina today. These people are beyond the reach of daylight schools. The moonlight schools do not solve the problem as we now know. They could be reached, served, and saved by country churches, and country Sunday schools, by country preachers and country Sunday school workers. Here indeed is their only chance, in my opinion. The illiteracy of native-born white men and women in North Carolina is a stubborn, hard fact. It grew from 13.3 per cent in 1850 to 14.6 per cent in 1910; in South Carolina the ratio rose from 5.7 per cent in 1850 to 18.2 per cent in 1916 in thirty-one of the forty-four counties. The numbers have been somewhat reduced of late years by the Illiteracy Commissions and the Adult Community Schools of these states. Nevertheless the illiterate white women of North Carolina in 1920 were 44,000, or only 3,000 fewer than seventy years ago. It is the woman who makes the home; it is the way of women. Illiterate women make homes that perpetuate illiteracy; and illiteracy minimizes church efficiency everywhere. If the church lets these illiterate women alone, it lays Ephraim's curse upon them.

The Church and the Landless Men

Country life must become more intelligent and efficient, more prosperous and satisfying, and more healthsome and wholesome in body, brain and spirit. Nothing less will solve the problems of the countryside and nothing less will save the country church. Otherwise remote country neighborhoods will continue to lose population, and the country church will go on losing membership and leadership. The farmer seems to be as a separate wheel moving in his own little circle of daily life. He is excessively individualistic; he thinks privately and locally, not socially in terms of the community. It could hardly be otherwise, because he lives

in a solitary dwelling and farming is a solitary occupation. The countryside therefore lacks community life, organization, and enterprise, and in consequence country schools, country roads, country churches and country sanitation and health fall behind or fall down together. The country preacher might easily be a leader, but as a rule he is an absentee-preacher who visits his churches to deliver once-a-month sermons, stays for a few hours, and then hurries away. It has been not irreverently said that not even the Son of God would have attempted to save a world in once-a-month visits. But the plan is cheap and apparently the country people are satisfied with it.

Constructive Suggestions

There are several things that are essential to the well-being of country civilization:

1. The country people and church authorities must realize that the country church is in danger, and the church papers can help to bring them to this realization.

2. Every large denomination in the South must have a Country-Life and Country-Church Board. At present the country church is considered as a home-mission problem. Instead of being a mission problem, it is from two-thirds to three-fourths of the whole church problem in the South. Church boards must cease to consider the country-life problem as an incident of pastoral theology. They must concern themselves with rural social-economics and expert social engineering as well as homiletics. Country tenants need to be led into home and farm ownership, illiterate white men and women need to be led out of darkness into light and learning, out of poverty into prosperity, out of solitary living into community life and enterprise. Church boards have set themselves to these tasks in other sections of the United States. We must have Country-Church Boards in the South busy with the same stated tasks. Eleven million dollars a year is what the Northern Methodist church is spending upon these distinct purposes.

3. There need to be liberal courses in rural social economics in every church school and seminary, and special training in these foundational subjects for every young minister looking forward to enlarged usefulness in country churches. In 1914 there were 187 church seminaries in the United States, and only 21 of them were giving any attention whatsoever to the social-economic problems of country life; in the South such courses were almost entirely lacking in church schools and seminaries.

4. There must be a consolidation of the weak, little country churches of each particular denomination. There must be comfortable country church homes—parsonages, pastoriums, manses, and the like—occupied by capable resident ministers, supported by liberal salaries. Nobody doubts the necessity for consolidated country schools. The consolidated country church is just as necessary. Instead of ten country Baptist churches in Orange county, for instance, there ought to be not more than four con-

solidated churches. The day of automobiles and roads is here and both church and school consolidation have become possible.

5. Make every country Sunday school an illiteracy school for such adults as need to learn reading and writing; with organized committees to go out into the byways and hedges to bring them in.

6. Sermons in every country church on such texts as these: "Woe unto them that join house unto house and field unto field that they may dwell alone in the midst of the earth." "Israel doth not know, my people do not consider." "Therefore my people have gone away into captivity, because they have no knowledge." "Where no vision is the people perish." "And moreover because the Preacher was wise, he still taught the people knowledge." "My people are destroyed for lack of knowledge; because thou hast rejected knowledge, I will also reject thee, that thou shalt be no priest unto me." "There is that scattereth and yet increaseth; and there is that withholdeth more than is meet, but it tendeth to poverty." "There is that maketh himself rich and yet hath nothing; there is that maketh himself poor and yet hath great riches." And so on and on.

The Bible is full of such scriptures, and if their full significance could be wrung out and applied to the problems of life in ten thousand sermons year by year in North Carolina we might begin to have, say, a progressive land tax that would bring within the reach of landless men and women the 100,000 unused vacant town lots and the 22 million idle wilderness acres of farm land in North Carolina; we might begin to have a liberal support of church schools and state schools alike; we might assail our illiteracy problems with the fever and fervor of religious zeal; and our churches and Sunday schools might deal effectively with the social ills that afflict life and livelihood in the world that now is.

Stewardship in Landownership

We are not likely to have any righteous land tax laws until Christian conscience gets busy with this subject as a spiritual concern. But among all the ministers I know there are only two who have any adequate conception of the vital significance of land tenures and land taxes, and the direct relation of these to civilization. Verinder's little volume, My Neighbor's Landmark, and Converse's The Bible and the Land, are the fruits of this competent acquaintance with fundamental Biblical doctrines. Both these books ought to be in every preacher's library.

The steady decrease of land and home ownership by the masses in Western civilization is directly traceable to the legal right a man has to hold land out of productive use for speculative rises in value; to the right to keep other people from using it, with no corresponding obligation to use it himself; to the unquestioned right of a man to own land that he cannot or will not use, and that he will not sell at any price that tenants and renters can pay or reasonably ought to pay; to a tax system that makes it possible and prospectively profitable to own vacant town lots and idle farm-lands.

Going back of settled law and prevalent custom, I raise the question of whether or not a man has any right in the sight of God or man to own any city lot or any farm land that he cannot or will not put directly or indirectly to productive uses. It is more than a legal inquiry; it is an ethical and spiritual inquiry. It concerns the final significances and values of civilization. Assuredly it does, when the steady march in modern times is toward land ownership by the few and land orphanage for the many—toward fewer and fewer home and farm owners in populous and prosperous areas—toward voting constituencies without homes or farms and with little or no personal property—toward instable, irresponsible citizenship on part of the masses—toward fantastic, destructive radicalism that mere wages and hours and working conditions, however liberal, can never cure. Assuredly the inquiry has pertinency in North Carolina with her 100,000 vacant unused town lots, with her 22 million idle acres of farm land, with her 1,380,000 landless people, town and country—people who cannot and ought not to buy farms and build city homes under present conditions.

Is this state of affairs which threatens farm areas, city areas, and industrial areas, the church and the state alike, any concern of the church? Is it fundamentally a religious problem?

The stewardship of wealth is an essential doctrine that the church everywhere is busily enforcing today. The relationship of wealth to the church is now being preached from every pulpit, and it is well, for men are in dire need of considering this question. But in my opinion, the church must go further; it must begin to consider the relationship of the church to wealth—to the producers, the processes and the problems of wealth; to wealth accumulation as well as to wealth-production. These relationships of the church to wealth cannot begin aud end with the mere emptying of contribution boxes. And the church must go still further: it must consider the relationship of wealth to weal, of wealth to the commou weal and the commonwealth. It must begin to make friends of the mammon of unrighteousness, in which matter, said the Master of men, the children of this world have been wiser than the children of light.

The stewardship of wealth is an all-inclusive doctrine, and it cannot be spelled out without considering every one of the texts I have quoted. When their final meanings are fathomed, Christian men will be busy with the pressing problems of landlessness, homelessness, illiteracy, poverty, feeble-mindedness, and a host of other social ills that arise out of the relations of men to land.

I am not a single-taxer, in Henry George's meaning of the term; but I am willing to subscribe to this statement of his: "In the production of wealth, there are land, labor and capital, rent, wages, and interest—these three, and the greatest of these is rent." Rent is uot necessarily evil, but when rent is essentially evil, then nearly everything else is wrong.

Land without people is a wilderness, but a people without land are a mob, said J. J. Hill. We cannot often enough repeat the truth that civilization is rooted and grounded in the home-owning, home-loving, home-

defending instincts. No nation or civilization can endure on any other basis. No fact of history is clearer than this; and if the church today is unconcerned about it, then its leaders lack the spiritual insight and the courageous practical statesmanship of Isaiah of old.—L. G. Wilson, a N. C. Club Study, 1921-22.

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FEDERAL AID FOR LANDLESS MEN

P. A. REAVIS, JR., Franklin County

I

The Federal Farm Loan Bank and the Tenant Farmer

In the discussion of the Club tonight, it is the purpose as has been said before to outline certain plans for aiding the farmer in financing his business. There has been in the last four or five years a very strong demand on the part of agricultural interests for better and "longer-periods-of-time" loans, so that the tenant farmer may be able not only to keep at the business of farming, but also to secure land in his own name, thereby relieving him of the present-day economic and social serfdom. Property ownership gives a man prestige in his community, it makes him have an interest in the affairs of the community, and of the state, and of the nation. It is a well-known psychological fundamental that when one has an interest in anything there will his heart and his attention be centered. I do not know of any way that such an interest can be stimulated, and better Americans can be made, than by giving every tenant a chance to own his own home. It is a well-established fact that tenants do wish to own their own property, but due to the present-day system of finance it has been impossible for them to secure the large amounts necessary. The banking system has been built up around short-termed loans and high interest rates, and under this system it has been far easier for the tenant to remain a tenant instead of pushing out on his own hook and purchasing large tracts of land. But in 1916 the demand for a better and easier system grew to such proportions that the Federal Farm Loan act was passed by Congress. The act briefly stated provided for:

1. The organization of 12 Federal Land Banks in 12 districts. (This district the 3rd, Bank at Columbia, S. C.)

2. The formation of local Farm Loan Associations with subscription of stock in same by the members desiring to negotiate a loan from the Federal Land Bank.

3. Not more than 50 per cent of the value of the land (appraised by expert government appraisers) offered as security plus 20 per cent of the value of the buildings, nor more than $10,000 in any case, will be loaned to a single borrower. The money must be used for the purpose specified, such as the purchase of land, improvements, equipment, fertilizers, or livestock, or for the payment of existing indebtedness.

4. The repayment of the loan over a period of from five to forty years in annual or semi-annual installments at a rate of not more than 6 per cent and not more than 1 per cent above the interest rate paid on the bonds of the Federal Land Bank, which are exempt from taxation. Thus if the interest paid on the bonds issued by the Federal Land Bank

(issued on the first mortgages held by it as security for the loans) is 4 per cent the interest charged the borrower could not exceed 5 per cent. The Land Bank will not accept any sort of mortgage except the first, for it is held that only first mortgages are sufficient security to issue bonds on. From this we see that the borrower does not borrow from the government but from the Federal Land Bank just as the business man borrows from the Federal Reserve Bank. The money loaned is secured through the sale of Federal Land Bank bonds.

This is in brief the outline of the system, divested of all its details of organization and operation. They are only the main principles which are of direct importance to a study of this nature. Now due to the short length of time and to the further fact that the subject is of such a broad nature, and there are so many details involved in an intensive study, I have seen fit to limit my discussion to only two further illustrations, after which there will be a free-for-all discussion. The first concrete example is of the purchase of land under the system by the tenant, and is taken from an article entitled "How the Farm Loan Act May Aid the Landless," in the Borrowers' Bulletin of November, 1917, a publication of the Federal Farm Loan Bureau of the United States Treasury.

Suppose John Smith wants to buy a hundred acres of land valued at $50 per acre. The total purchase price would be $5,000; but let us say that Smith has saved but $1,000. Under the Farm Loan Act Smith would be entitled to borrow only one-half of the appraised value, or $2,500 if this appraised value should be the same as the purchase price. He would pay this to the original owner, adding to it the one thousand which he has saved. He would have given a first mortgage to the Federal Farm Land Bank and there would therefore be a balance of $1,500 left to be handled with the original owner on a second mortgage. The original owner, having received the $2,500 borrowed by the tenant and the additional savings of $1,000 of the tenant, would undoubtedly be willing to accept a second mortgage for the balance divided into ten annual installments.

Here is the way it would figure out. The first mortgage for $2,500 given under the farm loan act would draw 5 per cent interest and would be paid off on the installment plan through a period of 36 years by making annual payments of $150. Now let us say that the second mortgage of $1,500 would draw 6 per cent and could be arranged so as to be retired in ten years. The interest on this fifteen hundred dollars at 6 per cent would be ninety dollars the first year. One-tenth of the $1,500 would be $150. Adding the interest and the one-tenth payment would be a payment of $240 the first year on account of the second mortgage, including interest and principal. The second year payment on the second mortgage would be $231 and the following annual payments throughout the ten years to retire the second mortgage, both principal and interest, would be, respectively $222, $213, $204, $195, $186, $177, $168, and $159.

On top of all these annual payments would be the $150 interest and amortization payment on the first mortgage to the Federal Land Bank, making the total payments, interest and principal, on both mortgages begin with $390 the first year and dwindle down to $309 the tenth year; thereafter only $150 each year for the remaining amortization period.

If the term of the second mortgage could be arranged for a longer period than ten years the required annual payments would be correspondingly reduced.

These payments are smaller than the average tenant pays for rent. Assuming as above that the purchaser had saved $1,000 to invest in a $5,000 farm of 100 acres, his first-year payment would amount to approximately $3.90 per acre. This would gradually lessen until the tenth year he would be paying $3.09 per acre, and each year after that he would be paying only $1.50 per acre. Instead of paying this money as rental he would be applying it on the purchase price of his land.

Even if the farmer could rent land worth fifty dollars per acre at an annual rental of $3.85 per acre he would still be benefited under the farm loan act. In the case of the renter he would have paid the land owner at the rate of about 8 per cent on his land investment and still be a renter, while under the farm loan act he would have come to the realization of his efforts and be an independent owner, free of mortgage, with the satisfaction and content which come with ownership.

For our consideration then we have the Farm Loan Act acting as an agency for the buying of land for the tenant, and thereby allowing him to become a land owner and a home-builder. Even with this one aim the Federal Land Bank would justify its existence. But it goes further. It allows a person to borrow to pay off an old and existing land debt which stares him in the face and makes his life a burden. For instance, take the following case, an illustration given in an article in the Sanford Express of July 1, 1921:

A owes the local bank $5,000 secured by a first mortgage on his farm. The Federal Lank Bank approves a loan for say $4,000 on the same security and this being insufficient to take up the entire first mortgage, the bank agrees to take $4,000 and a second mortgage for the remaining $1,000. The result of this arrangement is beneficial to both parties for the following reasons:

The borrower by paying 6 per cent interest and 1 per cent on the principal can carry four-fifths of his indebtedness for thirty-five years, thus taking an exceedingly long period for the repayment of four thousand dollars. In other words except for the insignificant payments mentioned, he can just forget that he owes the four thousand dollars and bend every energy to pay off the remaining $1,000 due the local bank, and this he can very probably do out of his next season's crop. The local bank thus gets its money much more quickly than if it waited for the farmer to pay the full $5,000 in the usual way. And the legal aspects of this plan are equally interesting. The local bank can sell under its second

mortgage as soon as its note for $1,000 matures, and the land will bring a higher price at a public sale because of the government mortgage of four thousand than it would if the local bank was carrying the full $5,000. The purchaser at such sale knows that he can take 35 years to pay off $4,000 (the amount of the land bank mortgage) of the purchase price of the land, whereas if the local bank was still carrying the full $5,000 on the land he would have to raise just that much more money at the time of the sale. Instead of its being a disadvantage it is a very decided advantage to make such an arrangement with the land bank as suggested above, as it adds to the sale value of the security, and business men everywhere are awaking to the fact. Loans are also for increasing farm equipments.

With these concrete illustrations and comments it is easily seen that the Federal Farm Loan Act is a distinct advantage to the country and more especially to the tenant who is anxious to own his own property and home. And the only reason that more have not taken advantage of the plan is because of the fact that the actual working of the plan is so little known. True it is that the Act itself is very complicated, covering over 28 pages of closely printed type, and the explanations of the system are still more lengthy and technical. Unless one studies the thing in detail and from every angle he does not understand it. An un-understandable system is always feared and criticised as the Federal Reserve System has been un-understood and criticised. But the Federal Land Bank and its system brings to the agriculturist, the tenant farmer, and others interested in the purchase of farm lands, exactly what the Federal Reserve System brings to the business man who is operating under a quick turnover market. The difference is that the land-purchaser must use a large amount of capital and get a small return on it over a period of years, and it thus takes a system supplying long-time loans to function in the field. The Federal Farm Loan Act supplies the system, and its operation is assured. What is needed now is to bring the system to the man who needs it so that it will be understood and used instead of feared and unused. Such will be the aim of this study when placed in the Club Year-Book.

II

Kelly's Proposed Revision of the Postal Savings System

The Postal Savings System of the United States was created by an Act of Congress on January 23, 1911. In the original measure it was provided that no person could deposit more than $100 in one month and no one could keep on deposit more than $500. Interest was paid at the rate of 2 per cent per year. This was the lowest interest rate paid in the world. By 1918 the limit of deposit had been raised to $2,500 but the interest rate remained the same—2 per cent. In ten years there has been built up a deposit of a little over one hundred and fifty million dollars. There are something over 500,000 depositors, and in 1921 there were 6,314 postoffices serving as Savings Banks. Funds secured through the system are deposited in banks paying 2½ per cent interest. In 1919

the government received, from all sources, interest on these deposits to the amount of $4,319,516 and only $2,297,441 was paid back to the depositors as interest. After deducting the cost of operation from the remainder the government made a net profit of $1,616,087 out of the Postal Savings System, which profit was paid into the Treasury. Banks which held the Postal Savings money on deposit reloaned it and made a net interest of $4,725,000. So a clear profit of over six million dollars was made on the Postal Savings System in only one year.

Congressman Clyde Kelly of Pennsylvania, now advocates a system of reform, or a revision of the original act. His contention is that the Postal Savings System is a public enterprise—a business conducted for the people. He maintains that by a reform of the system relief could be brought to many thousands of people—good American citizens—who desire to purchase homes but who do not have the means of securing the necessary cash outlay. Mr. Kelly's plan of revision calls for:

1. Immediate removal of the deposit limit restrictions.

2. Interest rate to be raised to 4 per cent, payable quarterly.

3. The establishment of a method of loan, by (1) Federal Loan Boards made up of (a) the Postmaster-General, (b) four other cabinet members. (2) Local Board, made up of (a) Postmaster, (b) 2 expert appraisers, (c) 2 members elected by depositors. (3) Applicant make application to local board stating (a) that he is an American citizen, (b) that he has on deposit 10 per cent of the value of the home to be purchased, (c) that he is to meet such other requirements as local board may determine. (4) The action of the Local Board shall be subject to review by the National Board. (5) Loan advanced to borrower on security of a trust deed upon the home property purchased. (6) Repayment of loan in monthly installments sufficient to cover interest and principal in reasonable time.

Congressman Kelly says that no more useful and beneficial use could be made of the Postal Savings System, or of the funds on deposit in the System, and that it would be in keeping with the purpose of the postal service as defined by the United States Postal Commission in 1844 ". . . . to diffuse enlightenment, social improvement, elevating our people in the scale of civilization and bringing them together in patriotic affection." In no better way can these aims be realized than by home ownership, and by means of the proposed reform home ownership would be relatively easy for not only the small townsman but for the tenant farmer as well. Neither of these is able to negotiate a long-time loan as easily as the city dweller can, and the revision would bring terms of finance within his power to use.

That the present operation of the Postal Savings System is not serving the public as it should is shown by the fact that Ex-Postmaster-General Hays also advocates a revision of the system, although his revision would not be so drastic, far-reaching and beneficial to the depositor and the would-be-borrower as that of Congressman Kelly. Mr. Hays advo-

cates eight reforms, but those of importance are only three in number. These three are: (1) Raise interest rate from 2 to 3 per cent. (2) Remove restrictions against depositors under ten years old. (3) Create savings branches in 50,000 postoffices instead of the present 6,314.

Mr. Hays claims that this revision would draw an extra billion dollars into the system and into circulation instead of its being hoarded. Needless it is for us to say that a billion dollars would build many new homes, and make happier and more loyal Americans.

The above facts, to my mind, speak for themselves. Without doubt there is necessity for an immediate revision of the present system of Postal Savings. The system should no longer exist to keep commercial banks in business, nor yet should it attempt in any way to do the work of the commercial bank. But it has a place, a very distinct place, in our governmental system, and it appears that Congressman Kelly has found it. In its place it can perform no greater service than (1) to materially aid the tenant farmer and the small-town home-purchaser, and (2) by so doing, make bigger, better, and more loyal Americans.

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STATE-AID TO FARM OWNERSHIP

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I

State-Aid in Denmark

The ownership of small farms is the economic basis of Danish life. To this well-nigh universal economic condition other things are traceable. A civilization is molded largely by the kind of land tenure that prevails. Wherever you find hereditary landlordism there you find political reaction, as in Russia and Great Britain. The poverty of the Irish people and a large part of the political agitation are consequences of hereditary landlordism. But in a country like Denmark where we find the people owning their own homes and fields, we find a different spirit and a different political system. There we find democracy and content mixed with enough discontent to cause them to be alert to remedy bad conditions. There hope, freedom, and ambition prevail. It is true in France, Holland, Switzerland, and the Scandinavian countries. There the people and not the feudal aristocracy own the land or the bulk of it.

We pride ourselves on our democracy in America. We have been fairly democratic in the past, but are we not slowly drifting away from democracy and equality? It is true because we are drifting away from a condition where the masses own their farms and homes. We are becoming a nation of tenants, both town and country. For the nation as a whole 38.1 per cent of our farmers are tenants, while in the South more than half of our farmers are tenants. In many Southern counties more than 80 per cent are tenants. In towns and cities home ownership is even rarer, home tenancy is the rule. Tenant farming destroys agriculture, because it destroys ambition, hope and initiative. Not only is it destructive of farming, it is destructive of the nation.

Taxing Land Values

The system of taxation in Denmark has had some effect on farm ownership. Formerly Denmark was a nation where the landed aristocracy ruled. This was true up to the middle of the last century, and later. The big estates paid proportionately far less tax than the small peasant farmer. The acre of the peasant produced more than the acre of the big estate, so the state taxed the peasant's acre accordingly. The peasant paid five or six times as much taxes per acre. His industry, thrift, and initiative were taxed. He was punished for making his land fertile. But later the small farmer came to rule Denmark. He argued that all land of equal fertility should be taxed alike. In addition, he argued that by means of taxation the large estates could be broken up and he would be able to secure a holding of his own at a small cost. As a result of long agitation the land of Denmark has been revalued so as to provide for a basis for land value taxation. An equal tax was laid on all land of equal

intrinsic value, so that small farmers would not be burdened with taxes while the great estates remained intact and largely free from taxation.

Fifty years ago nearly half of the Danish farmers were tenants. Today 90 per cent of the farmers own the lands they cultivate and the homes they live in. This condition has been brought about through four major causes: (1) Education, (2) Coöperation, (3) Taxation, and (4) State-Aid to would-be farmers. Nowhere is illiteracy lower or the average intelligence higher than in Denmark. They have developed coöperative agencies to such an extent that Denmark is spoken of as a Coöperative Commonwealth. The farmer is a self-contained economic unit, owning the major agencies of production and distribution himself. We have seen the effect of taxation on large estates. Education has promoted coöperation, coöperative societies have mothered education, and because of the two the small farmer owns and controls politics in Denmark. The taxation laws they enacted have broken up large estates, and the state-aid purchase laws have made it possible for any person to purchase land to be paid for over a long period of years.

State-aid to tenants had its beginning in a law passed in 1875 for the creation of land credit banks which received aid from the state and whose object was to assist men to purchase small holdings of land. Tenants rapidly became land owners, the big estates were losing their labor, wages were rising, so the big estate owners, controlling the upper house, tried to check the movement by making the holdings too small for use. But the effort was unsuccessful, and laws were passed in 1899, 1904, and 1909, by which the nation has entered on a great program of land distribution. A revolving fund of five million kroner a year was created to enable would-be farmers to purchase land.

Terms of Loans to Farm Purchasers

Before a loan is granted to a would-be farmer he must meet several conditions. (1) He must be over twenty-five and under fifty years of age. (2) He must have been a tenant or agricultural worker for at least four years and be able to satisfy the state by the guarantee of two persons of good standing as to his character. (3) He must demonstrate his good faith by providing one-tenth of the purchase price of the land and he must have in addition cash capital sufficient to equip and operate the farm he buys. When these conditions have been approved by a local committee, the state supplies, from the public funds, the other nine-tenths of the cost of the farm.

At first the maximum price for the purchase of a holding was $1,100 which included the value of the land, improvements, livestock, etc. Later the maximum purchase price was increased to $3,200. The minimum area that may be acquired is five acres. The holdings purchased so far have averaged between seven and eight acres. The loans advanced by the state are made as easy as possible for the purchasers. The rate of interest is 4 per cent and payments must be made as follows. During the

first five years only the interest is required. This gives the farmer a chance to get started. Then the loan is divided into two parts, one of two-fifths, and the other of three-fifths. The three-fifths section is converted into what may be called public stock; it is placed on the market for sale through the Mortgage Bank of Denmark and the stock has the guaranty of the state behind it. On this the farmer pays interest only. On the other two-fifths of the loan the borrowing farmer pays 5 per cent, one per cent of which is used for a sinking fund to retire the principal. The two-fifths section is paid off in an estimated period of 46½ years. Then the three-fifths section is converted into public stock to be paid off in the same manner, the entire loan being paid in 98 years. Local commissions administer the funds, approve the loans, and dictate for what the money shall be spent.

Between 1900 and 1916 the state had aided 8,200 farmers. The average purchase has been seven acres, and a total of $12,500,000 was advanced by the state.

The objectors stated that the 10 per cent furnished by the purchaser was too small a security for the state. It was urged that the state-aid should be reduced to a smaller sum. But experience has not justified this contention. There have been few mortgage foreclosures and no losses to the state.

Land Purchase Societies, a form of coöperation, have been organized. These are composed of farmers who wish to purchase land and the loans are made to the societies on conditions similar to those for individual purchasers.

The most radical step yet taken by any nation was taken in Denmark during the war when socialists temporarily got charge of the government. They enacted a law which gave land to an industrious, sober man who paid no purchase price. He was only required to pay interest on the value of the land fixed by law at four and one-half per cent. These holders rent their farms from the state. The values are periodically appraised. To aid the tenants in making improvements the state grants loans up to nine-tenths of the total cost of buildings. Such a tenant enjoys the same rights as the owner. He can divide the farm with his children, but if he wishes to sell, the state has the first right to buy, the farmer being fully compensated for all improvements. Land is secured by expropriating parts of great estates and land attached to the residences of the state clergy.

Credit Unions to Aid Farm Owners

In addition to the aids to ownership, there are many organizations of a coöperative sort to assist the farmer who already owns a farm. There are twelve credit unions in Denmark, each operating in its own section of the country. Two are for very small farmers. These twelve unions have made loans to more than 236,000 properties. There are about 250,000 farms in Denmark. The average annual losses have been one-

third of one per cent, and these have been made good out of a reserve fund which iu 1914 amounted to $20,400,000. The state gives no direct aid, but guarantees the bonds up to 4 per cent interest. Thus they have a higher value in the market than purely voluntary credit unions.

Any farm owner in good stauding can go to the credit union in his region aud sign a promissory uote acknowledging that he is indebted to the amount of the loan. He executes a mortgage upon his farm to the credit union, which in turn issues notes to him that he is able to dispose of anywhere. They have the security of the union behind them and are easily negotiable. The farmer pays a fixed sum annually or semi-annually to the union, amounting to sixty-five hundredths of one per cent per year in addition to the iuterest of the mortgage. One-half of one per cent is to amortize the debt which is to be repaid in sixty years. The loan is limited to 60 per cent of the value of the property. The bouds or notes issued are sold privately or upon the stock exchange like any other merchandise whose price is subject to quotations. The unions are purely voluntary. They receive no aid from the government and make loans only on mortgages upon land.

Denmark is the best educated country in the world, and here coöperation reaches its highest perfection. She is probably the richest country in per capita farm wealth. And nowhere cau a farmer secure credit cheaper or more easily than in Denmark. Cheap farm credit and state-aid to would-be farmers are the basis of Dauish farm ownership and prosperity; and home owuership is the basis of au enduring political structure.

II

State-Aid in New Zealand

In matters of social legislation to aid all classes of people, New Zealand has gone further than any other country. In considering how a state can aid its farmers it is well worth while to consider what this distant, newly settled country has done to enable its farmers and towns-people to own farms and homes.

Before 1877 enormous estates had been built up. Many owners held more than 50,000 acres of land. Some of these were absentee landlords. There was at that time no adequate realization of the dangers of laud monopoly. There was no comprehensive movement to get the people settled on the soil. There was no limit to the amount of land a man might own. The desire to build up great estates and to reap enormous profits from land speculation was strong. Land became concentrated. One-third of one per cent of the people owned over half the laud. Only 14 per cent of the white people owned land iu 1890. There were 584 owners who held an average of 17,800 acres each.

Beginning with 1877 and extending on down to the present time a series of acts have been passed which have revolutionized couditions in New Zealand.

Crown Lands

Not all the land had passed into private hands. A considerable portion was and still is held by the crown. By an act passed in 1892 a farmer could lease land for a period of 999 years, paying the state 4 per cent on the value of the land at the time the lease was made. This act was amended in 1907, and the period of lease was reduced to 66 years for ordinary crown land and 33 years for settlement land, with a perpetual right of renewal. A new value is placed on the land at the termination of each lease period.

At present crown lands are disposed of as follows:

1. For cash, in which one-fifth of the purchase money is paid down, the rest within thirty days.

2. By lease for 25 years with right of purchase after ten years, or right to renew lease. Rent 5 per cent.

3. By renewable lease at a rental of 4 per cent on the capital value of the land, the lease being for 66 years with perpetual right of renewal.

The Land for Settlement Act passed in 1900 empowers the Minister of Lands to purchase large estates, divide them and sub-lease them to farmers at a land value rental of 4½ per cent, new leases being in effect every 33 years. Land may be taken compulsorily in case the land board cannot agree with the owner as to price.

Advances to Settlers

Long-term loans are advanced to settlers who own first-class lands. These loans are solely for the purpose of making improvements. No loan is for less than $125 or for more than $13,000. Mortgages are taken on the free hold or the lease hold and on the buildings. These mortgages are paid off by making 73 half-year payments. The interest is at the rate of 4½ per cent, each payment being $3 on the hundred, the debt being amortized in 37½ years. Advances are made to workers who have saved a sum and wish to build.

Income and Land Tax

In New Zealand there is a combined land and income tax in force. The income tax is generally assessable on all income, with the exceptions of the rents or profits derived from the direct use or cultivation of land, and interest from mortgages on land. The man who pays a land tax pays no income tax where sufficient profits are derived from the land. There is no double taxation.

The land tax, which is a capital tax, therefore takes the place of an income tax on all income derived from the land, so that there is not a general income tax on all incomes in New Zealand, the object in view being to break down land monopoly or the aggregation of large estates, and to compel owners of land to put it to the best use. The land tax and graduated land tax are considered effective; the land tax prevents land being held unproductively and the graduated tax prevents the aggregation of large estates.

The Land Tax

The land tax is assessed on the land values alone, that is, the capital value less the value of all improvements. There is an entire exemption from taxation on all improvements on land both for income tax and land tax. Since this feature has been in effect the new buildings erected and improvements made have been unprecedented. No man is taxed for his expended labor, for thrift, for any improvements made on any land. The effect of this on trade and labor in conducing to the prosperity of the Dominion can scarcely be overestimated.

A farmer who has a mortgage against his land deducts the amount of it from the value of the land when listing it for taxation.

An owner of land the value of which, apart from improvements and mortgages, does not exceed $6,500 is allowed an exemption of $2,500. The exemption diminishes $5 for every $10 above this so that there is no exemption when $12,500 is reached.

Owing to the deduction and exemptions allowable the number of land-tax payers in 1909 were only 30,855 out of 143,243 free holders and 25,204 crown tenants. The rest paid no state tax of any sort. But they all pay local and municipal taxes. No tax, land or income, is collected where it inflicts a hardship on the person paying.

Graduated Land Tax

As stated above, the graduated land tax is for the purpose of preventing great estates, and of breaking up those already in existence. There is no tax on anything except the value of the land. The graduated tax begins on estates worth $25,000. The tax is very low, being almost negligible. It is thirteen times as high on estates worth $200,000. The maximum is reached at $1,000,000 where it is about 2½ per cent of the value of the land.

The graduated land tax is increased by 50 per cent in the case of absentee land owners. This tax feature makes it almost impossible for an absentee owner to hold a large estate out of productive uses. Many have been forced to sell either to small farmers or to the minister of lands.

The above tax is for state purposes and is a state levy. It is in addition to the local land tax for local purposes, which amounts to about fifty cents on the hundred dollars.

Inheritance Taxes

In addition to the land and income taxes there is a progressive tax on inherited estates. The tax runs from 2½ per cent on the first $3,000 with $5,000 exemption, and runs to 10 per cent on an estate of $100,000 or more. Property passing to a widow or widower is exempt. The law will not break up family estates as long as either member of the partnership survives. There are also provisions for children, grandchildren, etc.

These three graded taxes on land, incomes, and decendents' estates supply the means whereby the government may put pressure on monopoly to any extent that may be deemed desirable in their effort to promote the public welfare.

Other countries have land, income and inheritance taxes, but no other state or country except Switzerland has anything like so strong a law as that of New Zealand with its six great principles: (1) exemption of improvements, livestock, and personalty; (2) exemption of small property owners who would be embarrassed by the tax; (3) deduction of mortgages in paying taxes on land; (4) no taxes on incomes, unless they are above the average level or labor line; (5) inheritance and succession duties; and (6) graduation of the taxes to restrain monopoly and to conform more closely to the rule of payment according to ability, which is the fundamental equity in taxation.

State Business in Land

When New Zealand adopted her present system of land taxation the state had to go into the land business. She is now organized to take over all lands on which the owners cannot pay the state tax, or who refuse to abide by the state assessment. In addition the state is prepared to purchase any holding offered for sale. This land is disposed of either through sale or long-term leases as outlined above. Thousands of farmers have become established on leased and owned land since the state went into the land business on a big scale. It is prepared to take care of any settler, town or country, who wishes to lease or own a farm or town place, and in addition the state makes long-term loans to enable the lessee to build homes and make improvements.

The purchasing of estates and small properties and their redistribution to settlers has been a profitable state enterprise (the profits averaging from $250,000 to $500,000 a year in 1902 just after the new law went into effect). An example of how the system works can be given.

The Cheviot estate comprised 84,755 acres and was purchased by the private landlord in 1853 for about $210,000. The owner had made great improvements, but in 1892 it was supporting only 80 people. In that year the tax commissioners assessed the property at $1,524,130. The trustees of the estate valued it at $300,250 less than that amount. The trustees insisted it was worth no more and as the law stood the trustees could make the state reduce the assessment or purchase the land. They called on the state to buy at that figure, which it did. During the same year the state was offered a bonus of $200,000 but the state was not seeking profits, and refused to sell.

However, the purchase was made a profitable one. The mansion house, with 5,000 acres, was re-sold to a member of the former owner's family for $125,000 cash. A few thousand acres more were sold for cash. But 75,000 acres were retained and leased. It was cut up into farms of from 50 to 3,000 acres each, according to fertility, and leased to settlers. In 1902 this estate was supporting 380 families who were renting from the state. The rents are paying to the government 5½ per cent on the

investment, while the interest charges paid by the state on purchase money is only 3½ per cent. The estate will pay for itself in 20 years. After that time the state has a clean profit of 5½ per cent a year and the renters have the cheapest land they could get anywhere on earth, 5½ per cent on the value of the unimproved land, and no other state tax whatsoever. This is an illustration that can be duplicated many times over. The state makes a handsome profit while the renters and small landowners in New Zealand are highly contented with the new land system.

III

The United States

All of the above is in sharp contrast to conditions in this country. No state has a progressive land tax. Every state taxes the industry of its people by taxing all improvements made on land, while in most states land speculation is encouraged by allowing large land owners to list land at nominal valuations and thus to hold it out of productive use. Land speculation is encouraged in this country while at the same time we discourage the making of improvements, and the building of homes, by taxing to the limit every improvement made on land. The Revaluation Act of 1919 revealed the story in North Carolina. More than a million acres of land were put on our tax books that had never been there before, or had been off so long that the tax authorities had forgotten them. In one county a single tract of 1,700 acres of land was listed for the first time in 40 years. The new property found in the state amounted to more than two billion dollars, mostly land that had formerly been listed at a nominal value. Small properties were already paying enough. Large estates being held out of productive use for speculative rises in values were listed at ridiculously low figures. The Revaluation Act did great good. It disclosed our loose tax system. It showed how we aid land speculators, and discourage active farm owners busy making improvements on land.

The Progressive Land Tax

We do not believe that our present system of taxation promotes land ownership by the many. It discourages the building of homes, and the making of other improvements on land. We have 22 million acres of idle land, 43.5 per cent of our farmers are tenants and about two-thirds of all our town and city people live in other people's houses. Our system of taxation is largely responsible for this condition. We propose as one remedy to the tenant system, a new taxation system, the Progressive Land Tax—not as radical as in New Zealand and many other countries, but a system that is safe and sane for this state, a system that will discourage land speculation, encourage the building of homes, and the ownership of farms, a system that will make it possible for a man who wishes to own a piece of land to buy it and live on it without being taxed to death.

The Progressive Land Tax we propose is (1) low rates on improvements, higher rates on land, and still higher rates on land held out of

productive use for speculative rises in value, with a maximum tax on land held out of use by absentee landlords, (2) with exemptions or low rates on small properties while occupied and operated or used by the owners. Such a tax system would force on the market land now held out of use for a speculative rise in value. It would promote and encourage making improvements on land, increasing its fertility, building fences, buying machinery and livestock, and building homes. It would give the people of North Carolina a chance to own farms and homes of their own, and instead of becoming more and more a mass of landless, homeless, irresponsible people, we would become more and more a people living on our own soil and under our own roofs, a home-owning, home-loving, home-defending people.

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PROMOTING HOMES AND FARM OWNERSHIP IN THE BRITISH ISLES

Miss Katherine Woodrow, South Carolina

Can a stable civilization be built on land ownership by the few and land orphanage for the many? After many centuries of feudal aristocracy based on land ownership, the English people have begun to doubt it. Since 1892 the Home Office has been busy promoting home and farm ownership by various state-aid measures in England, Ireland, and Scotland.

The bare facts of land monopoly in Great Britain and Ireland when the new century opened were as follows: (1) In England and Wales more than two-fifths of the entire area was owned by 4,717 landlords. Ten thousand two hundred and seven landlords owned two-thirds of it, says Mulhall, in Industries and Wealth of Nations—which means that two-thirds of all the land of these two countries was owned by a fourth of one per cent of the total population. (2) Nine-tenths of Scotland, a land of 19 million acres and nearly 5 million people, was owned by 1,728 landlords. (3) In Ireland 1,942 landlords owned two-thirds of the 20 million acres, and more than four million people were peasant farmers. Two-thirds of England and Wales, nine-tenths of Ireland and nineteen-twentieths of Scotland were held by fewer than 20 thousand landowners and their families; the rest of the 45 million inhabitants were landless and homeless.

When the great World War began barely a fifth of England's people lived on the land and most of these were lease holders and casual day laborers. What they produced was enough to feed England for less than a tenth of a year—a most serious matter when the submarine blockade began to shut off imported food supplies. Four-fifths or 28 million of all her people lived in towns and cities, two-thirds of them very poor, eight million of them on the border line of starvation. One of every seven of her dead died in a public hospital, asylum, or work-house, and was buried in the potter's field at public expense—in London and Liverpool the ratio was one of every four. Such is the summary of Frederick C. Howe in Privilege and Democracy.

The great estates have ruined Italy, said Pliny, and England in her hour of extreme peril was face to face with a similar cause of national disaster. The great problem was to re-build her civilization, to base it on home and farm ownership, and to do it with the utmost dispatch.

So much by way of preface to Miss Woodrow's brief account of state-aid to landless men in England, Ireland and Scotland during the last half century.

I

State-Aid in England

England has many generations and customs mixed in with the history of home and farm ownership of her citizens. At the end of the

seventeenth century in some parishes in England practically all the farmers owned the land which they cultivated. As a general rule however, there was a squire or gentleman or a greater landlord who owned a large share of the parish land and who held important rights in a great deal of the land which he did not own. A parish dominated in this way was called a manor and the landlord was called the lord of the manor. The portion of this land which was kept as the home farm was managed by a bailiff or hired farmer. As a rule the remainder of the landlord's property was leased to tenants who paid an annual or semi-annual rent for its use. An important exception to this rule was found in southwest England where conventional freeholds or life leaseholds were common. These conventional freeholds were created when a farmer paid perhaps two-thirds of its value for an estate in the land which was to last so long as any one of three persons named in the agreement should live, after which the property was to revert to the original owner. But in order to keep this property from reverting to the original owner it was common to put in a new life whenever one of the three lives came to an end. This was usually agreed to by the landlord upon the payment of a fine. Such farms were said to be leased out on lives. All tillers of the soil who held lands by any tenure which implied ownership came to be called yeomen or statesmen in contradistinction to those who paid rent and who were called farmers. At present, however, the former are called yeomen farmers and the latter tenant farmers. We find statements to the effect that two hundred years ago more than half of the English farmers owned the lands they cultivated. In 1688 there were 356,560 farms in England and two hundred years later there were only 380,179. In two centuries, the increase in farms was only 23,619.

During the eighteenth century the factory system became established and manufacture in the homes was no longer profitable. The factory system affected farmers in three ways. Some of the small farmers were absorbed by the large industries of the towns, others turned their attention to agriculture and became prosperous, while others were reduced in time to the ranks of agricultural laborers. About this time too there was another influence. Many who had made fortunes in manufactures or in commerce desired to own country homes and these wealthy merchants purchased farms and operated them, not for profit, but for pleasure. This led to the buying out of many land-owning farmers in the vicinity of the large centers of wealth. So, in various ways the reörganization of industry in England at the close of the eighteenth century tended to reduce the number of farmers who owned the land they cultivated and to increase the number of great landlords and tenant farmers.

The passing of the yeoman was distinctly regretted. Sir John Sinclair said of the English yeoman: His attachment to his home and to the laws and religion of the country; his submission to government; his respect for all who were above him and affection for all who were below him rendered him a most useful and valuable member of the community. He was the link which connected the gentleman and the farmer; and as

both were willing and desirous of associating with him on friendly terms, his existence gave a concord and harmony to society; created a common knowledge and interest in all that was passing; and blended into one whole the welfare of each respective neighborhood.

Following the close of the Napoleonic wars and the agricultural depression there was a rapid decline of home-owning farmers. Although they were most industrious as a class, they were reduced in estate by extravagance and indebtedness in a period of falling prices. Sometimes the indebtedness was incurred for the purchase of land, sometimes for improvements, often to provide for the younger members of the family, and occasionally to cover living expenses. As is well known, it was and is the custom in England for the eldest son to inherit the estate. The younger members of the family played in hard luck though they were entitled to certain sums for support.

When forfeited land came upon the market it was usually purchased by the great landlords, merchants, or manufacturers who rarely cared to put it upon the market again; and thus this temporary depression had a permanent effect. The yeomen farmers were gradually reduced in number, decade after decade, until by the close of the third quarter of the 19th century they were found only here and there. Farm tenancy had become the rule in England. In 1883 John Rae estimated that probably not more than 5 per cent of the farmers of England owned the land they tilled.

In 1895 the Royal Agricultural Commission sent assistant commissioners into various parts of the country to gather information concerning the agricultural depression. The report of this commission was as follows:

"As a rule the properties of the farmers, whether inherited or purchased by the present proprietors, are charged with mortgages, and the mortgagee makes no remission of the interest due to him. In consequence of the shrinkage in the value of land, the interest on the mortgage has become in many cases a burden, which the owner has been unable to bear, and frequently where the yeoman farmer has succeeded in paying the interest due from him it has been a heavier rent than he would have paid to a landlord."

In 1900 over 21,000,000 acres in England or 86 per cent of all the land in crops and grasses was occupied by tenant farmers, and only 14 per cent of the arable land was occupied by owners.

Twenty years ago the price of farm land in England was so high, compared with its producing power, the expense of making transfers so great and the land credit system so poor that the farmers did not often care to indulge in the luxury of land ownership. The re-establishment of peasant proprietors on a safe business basis at last became a self-defensive public necessity in England.

The first of the laws which leans in the general direction of the present drift was the Small Holdings Act of 1892. This act empowered each county council to acquire land, improve it, and sell it to small farmers and day laborers on favorable terms. In 1908 and 1910 Parliamentary

Acts were passed aiming to provide allotments of one acre or less, and small holdings of more than one acre, as homes for laborers and small farmers. These acts became the basis of the various Soldier Settlement Acts that have been passed since 1914. Six years after the passing of the first named acts 130,526 individuals and 52 associations had been helped into homes of their own. The year the World War began there were 8,391 approved applicants and two associations on the waiting list. These figures indicate the large number of dwellers on the little island who eagerly await an opportunity to be owners of their own little home places. In startling contrast to the large number eager to own their own homes is the statement that in 1917, 676 lords temporal and spiritual owned three-fourths of the land of England!

State-aid settlement in England is directed by the county councils. These county councils acquire land by agreement or compulsion and they direct the disposition of the land thus acquired. While the land passing through the hands of the county councils is only one per cent of the land in England it contains 15 per cent of all the cultivated land. Nearly all of the newly acquired land has been nationalized, which means that the government holds the title and the settler gets a perpetual right to live on the land and use it. These recent policies in England disclose a most important result. It has been found through experience that there are great advantages for all concerned in group settlements rather than individual separate holdings. Necessary education can be given profitably only to organized groups of at least one hundred farm families, and the government has found it worth while to provide $100,000 a year to pay teachers and organizers of small holders in settlement groups. The Agricultural Organization Society and other societies have done much in training people to think and act together in matters affecting their common welfare.

The British system of land renting is worthy of note, and it would be well if in our Southland the one-year system of farm rents could be abolished and British precedent followed. It was thus interestingly set forth:

"The landlord has title to the land itself; and in England and Scotland he also owns the improvements which he and his ancestors put there; but there is recognition of the right of the tenant to remove at the end of his lease (without damage to the interests of the landlord) any improvements he has been obliged to make, and especially of his right to any fertility he may have added to the land during his occupancy.

"For example, if he has bought stock feeds, such as Indian corn, oil meal, cottonseed meal, or any other meal, and has fed it to stock, he has had opportunity to recover it during the term of his lease or of his occupancy. If he has plowed under clover or other humus material, he is entitled to compensation in case he is removed. This principle also applies to commercial fertilizers.

"On the other hand, if he has sold off the farm certain grains specified by the law, the landlord has the right to sue him to recover the fertilization value of the feeds sold, or to demand that an equivalent be returned to the land by the tenant.

"The landlord may not raise the rent because of any increase in fertility which the tenant may have put in the land. And if he does so without reasons justified by good husbandry, according to the custom of the country and neighborhood, the tenant may recover not merely for the expense of removal, but for any damages that he may have incurred. This is called suing for disturbances. When a lease expires and is not renewed, and the tenant actually leaves, he is entitled to recover for any unexhausted manures. This the landlord must pay. He charges it up to the land. This must be assumed by the incoming tenant, the equities being determined by an arbitrator, an expert in lands and fertilizers, appointed by the department of agriculture. From his decisions there can be an appeal, and a second appeal but no more. His decision, if at all just, is practically final.

"This brings us to the very core of the matter. The tenant, being assured of payment for any unexhausted fertility he may have added to the land, is encouraged to do his best, and naturally desires to remain on the land for a long period, usually the longer the better. On the other hand, the landlord, being indisposed to pay the debts on the land is anxious to retain the tenant as long as possible. This explains why the one-year lease is something practically unknown either in England, Scotland or Wales.

"It also explains the fact, surprising to us, that lands in these countries usually maintain their fertility. This was not the case prior to the enactment of these laws. Under the old fourteen and nineteen-year leases, the tenant was likely to do first-class farming the first years of his lease, and then become what is there known as a scourger, a physicker of the land (British for soil robber), getting out of it all that was possible toward the end of the lease, and putting in nothing more than he was absolutely required to do. The new land laws make it to the interest of the tenant to farm to the best of his ability; and to the interest of the landlord to keep him as long as possible and thus conserve the fertility of the land.

Sentiment considered, it will be distressing to see the destruction and disappearance of many of the historic and stately mansions of fair England. The change will mean a revolution in the English country-side where for 400 years the semi-feudal relationship between the families of the big house and the peasantry has been maintained. Nevertheless England is now helping to build up a rural system which, being slow, solid and conservative, will thoroughly represent the fundamentals of English character.

II

State-Aid in Ireland and Scotland

The Irish tenant had been in revolt against the non-resident land owners for many years prior to the beginning of the twentieth century. The government had attempted to solve the difficulty by fixing rents and conditions under which the tenant was to hold the land. But the plan satisfied neither tenants nor landlords. Therefore the Irish Land Purchase Act was passed by the English Parliament in 1903. This act placed in the hands of an estate commission $500,000,000 for the purpose of transferring lands to cultivators and it gave in addition $60,000,000 to enable tenants without money to pay in cash one-fourth of the purchase price. Much land had to be obtained in Ireland by compulsion. The Royal Commission had power to appraise the large estate owned by absentee landlords at their actual rather than their speculative value, and to buy them in the name of the government at the appraised value, plus 12 per cent bonus.

The settler who buys Irish state land pays 3½ per cent a year on the purchase price, three per cent interest and one-half per cent on the principal. This pays off the debt, principal and interest, in 68½ years.

As a political and social measure, the act has been a remarkable success. The Irish peasant has at last realized the long felt aspiration to own his farm. According to Sir Horace Plunkett, "The new land law under which small tenant farmers may buy their holding for smaller yearly payments than they formerly paid as rent is settling the country. The hope of many is that the law carried out will check the exodus of Irishmen if it does not stop it entirely.

In Scotland the tenant farmer or crofter is hungry for a piece of land he can call his own. Because of this desire and the lack of laws to satisfy it rural Scotland was being bled white by the movement of its people to Canada and Australia. Because of this great unrest the Scottish Land Act was passed. This act created the Scottish Land Court. The Court was invested with the power to take over estates—not by purchase however—divide them into small holdings, and fix the conditions under which the holdings are to be occupied. The small holder is a tenant of the owner of the soil, but the ordinary relations of the landlord and tenant can be removed from the sphere of private contract, and the right of the tenant to occupy and improve the land is made so secure as to justify him in erecting better buildings, employing better farming methods, and making the best possible use of the land. The main business of the land court ever since it was established has been the reduction of rents. In the past the land owners had left the Scotch tenant to make improvements and when these gave the land an increased value, the rent was raised. The land court has stopped this.

The board that administers the Land Act in Scotland has a fund of $100,000,000 with which to lend money for improvements or to buy land.

From The Literary Digest of February 4, 1922, we have the news that since the Armistice one-fourth of the entire area of Scotland or four and a half million acres of Scottish land has changed hands.

The oldest son still inherits the estate in Great Britain, but the land tax, the income tax, the transfer tax, and the death tax have all grown to be so heavy since the World War that the lords of vast estates are being obliged to sell off their parks and game preserves, and to release many million acres to small farmers for productive uses. The restoration of the British Isles to home and farm owners plays sad havoc with feudal aristocracy, but it is certainly placing English civilization on a stable foundation. Said a peasant farmer to Mr. E. C. Branson at the Royal Cattle Show at Islington in 1908, "England is a paradise for pigs and cattle, but it's Hell for the poor man." The state-aid landownership laws of the realm are slowly making home owners of self-respecting poor men, and basing the future of English civilization on home and farm ownership.

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STATE-AID TO FARM OWNERSHIP IN AUSTRALIA

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I

Brief History

State-aid to farmers in Australia upon the farm colony plan has been a pronounced success, especially in Victoria.

The social and economic advantages of farm group settlements was long ago demonstrated in Europe. It was therefore decided in Victoria that each area of farm land purchased should be large enough for not less than one hundred families and that areas even larger would be better. It was thought that twenty thousand acres would be the most desirable size for a settlement. This would give some 500 farms with an average of 40 acres each.

An annual sum of $1,250,000 was made available for purchasing land and helping settlers to improve their farms. This appropriation was made in advance of actual settlement, and a considerable fund was accumulated before it began to be drawn upon. The government of Victoria in carrying out its closer-settlement plan left the selection of the areas to be developed to the State Rivers Commission. This was done because it was necessary to follow a plan which would provide a market for the water of the irrigation canals already built. While the State Rivers Commission was the settlement agency, the land was bought by a board which had charge of the crown lands and also of the lands hitherto bought by the state for various purposes.

During the first six years, 1909 to 1915, all of the land that was bought was purchased through private bargaining. The price paid was usually fixed by the income from the land received by the owner during three to five years previous to the sale, twenty times the yearly net income being regarded as a fair valuation. About one-half of the land was bought at the usual selling value. Although a law provided for condemnation, it was never employed for the reason that it was so slow and costly in operation.

In order to get together the land for the different settlements, holdings of all areas within chosen boundaries from 160 acres up to 36,000 acres were purchased. Various areas were bought and thrown together to form the Rochester Settlement in Victoria. The state paid from $30 to $45 per acre for this land, but the settlers can now sell it for from $100 to $150 per acre. The Bamawm estate had previously been subdivided into twenty-eight farms. These twenty-eight farms were purchased and from them 150 farms were made. From the other tracts bought for the settlement, 130 farms were made. There were 30 families living on the land when it was purchased by the government. Some two hundred and fifty-five of the farms were taken up as soon as the land was thrown open for settle-

ment, and the remaining sixty within a short time. At a later date, some of the large farms were subdivided so that there is now a total of 390 farms in this area.

The land being bought by the state for settlement was originally crown land. It was first disposed of in large tracts on long-time payments and used for pasturage. Under these conditions all of the best land had been taken up. But eventually when it was found that the land could be put to the higher use of wheat raising, there grew up a demand for farms, and it had to be gratified in some way. To satisfy this demand for farms, the state bought back the land from the people holding leases or purchase agreements, and opened it under a law called "free selection." Under this law any selector could take as much as 320 acres, but by hiring people to file on the land, it was possible to obtain much larger areas. Subsequently those seeking to create large estates bought out the selectors and again devoted great holdings to pasturage. Then the state for the second time resumed land which it had originally owned, and in some localities the state bought back land three times.

A strong feeling therefore came into existence that something should be done to prevent land monopoly and to insure permanent ownership of land by its cultivators. To accomplish this, the commission appointed under the Land Settlement Act decided that a settler's title to the land could not be secured until after twelve years of residence and that afterward the title would contain a clause requiring the owner or some member of his family to live on the land eight months out of every year unless excused by the commission for adequate cause. There was a provision against holdings beyond a limit in value of $12,500 but this restriction was not immediately felt since the husband, the wife, and every child over eighteen years of age could hold.

In New South Wales where similar settlements were established soon afterwards the land was nationalized and a new form of land tenure was introduced. The settler who took land did not pay for it, but paid an annual charge which could be taken out as a rent or tax. He had full control over the land and his children could inherit it, but the conditions of ownership and inheritance provided that the cultivator had to live on the land.

This title therefore contained more of the elements of a fee simple than of a lease-hold right. It relieved poor settlers from struggling to pay for land and protected them in the improvements they made. For men without money it was a better plan for ending non-resident ownership than that of Victoria.

The Land Settlement Act fixed the maximum price of an unimproved farm at $12,500. It provided for allotments for farm and industrial workers, that is, for men whose incomes come chiefly from their wages. In time, the homes of the workers were nearly all made two acres in area. This gave a sufficient amount of land to keep a cow and chickens, and to grow a home garden. The farms varied in size from ten to two hundred acres. The size last mentioned was fixed when a portion of the land was

not suited to irrigation. The controlling condition in laying out the farms was the supply of water. Efforts were made to fit the farms to the canals, as buildings are set along city streets.

The subdivision of the land for settlement into farms was followed by an appraisement. The appraisement was determined by the price paid by the state for the land plus the expenses of subdivision and superintendence plus a sum to cover any loss which might occur through failure of settlers, or through possible delay in settlement. The amount that was added to the purchase price was about fifteen per cent.

The land bought by the state in Australia ranged in price from $15 to $130 per acre. The selling price ranged from less than $20 in some instances to $130 an acre.

The conditions of purchase and of loans to be complied with were as follows:

Payments for land were to extend over a period of thirty-one and a half years or a less time if settlers desired.

The interest on unpaid payments on land was to be four and a half per cent.

Payments were amortized, the annual payment of one and a half per cent on the principal making a total yearly rate of 6 per cent; the payments, however, were made semi-annually, there being 63 of these.

Parties could apply for more than one allotment and were advised to make a first, second and third choice.

Applicants had to be at least eighteen years of age.

A cash payment of 3 per cent had to be made on a farm or farm worker's allotment at the time of purchase and a 10 per cent payment had to be made on the cost of a house built by the state.

The state could advance up to $1,250 for the building of a farm home on a farm, or up to $500 to help pay for a home on a farm worker's allotment.

Those having farm worker's allotments were required to complete a house worth at least $1,500 within the first year and to have the allotment inclosed by a fence within two years.

Actual residence on each allotment was required within six months but the residence on the farm of the wife, or children over eighteen years of age, was considered the same as personal residence.

The purchaser of a farm allotment was not permitted to transfer, assign, mortgage, or sublet his allotment within the first six years after purchase, but a farm worker could do so at any time with the consent of the commission.

Buyers of farms or farm worker's allotments were permitted to pay the whole or any part of the purchase money at any regular payment period.

A deed to the land, regardless of the time of purchase, could not be issued until twelve years after the date of purchase. Up to that time only a purchase contract was given.

In working out plans for the purpose of helping the settlers to get a start, the commission tried to forecast what the settlers must do and what

expenses they must incur. Whether the farm contained ten acres or fifty acres certain equipment would have to be provided and certain improvements made. These would naturally include: (1) a house, (2) buildings to shelter livestock and implements, (3) one or more cows and one or more horses, (4) furniture for the house, and tools and machinery for the farm, (5) the leveling of the land to bring about an even flow of water in irrigation, (6) small lateral ditches to distribute water, (7) boundary and subdivision fences, (8) money for living expenses until there was an income.

Estimates of the least cost of these for an unimproved farm of from 20 to 40 acres averaged $3,750, a larger sum than had been realized before this matter was carefully investigated. A very small number of applicants for land had this amount of money. If these needy applicants were to be accepted someone must provide either money or credit. Since the government owned the land, it was in the best position to finance its improvement. Money loaned to settlers for improvements increased the value of the security, and the enhanced land values which resulted from better farming made the enterprise a solvent one. If a settler got into arrears and it became necessary to evict him, the price of the farm to the next buyer was increased and the loss recouped.

Direct return to the government would make state aid a sound plan if the majority of the settlers paid the amounts agreed upon. European experience showed, however, that few settlers who started without capital could succeed on farms of ten acres or more. Farm workers could pay for their allotments, because it was easier for them to meet payments than it was to pay rent. All were agreed that on the irrigated farms of Victoria, the settler buying from 30 to 40 acres should have one-fifth the cost of the improved place in money or its equivalent, that the larger the farm the larger the share of the entire cost the settler should be able to provide. The decision of the Victorian government was that the settler ought to have enough money to pay 3 per cent on the cost of the land and 10 per cent of the cost of all improvements and be able to buy his own stock. To comply with these conditions he would need about $1,500; and each applicant for a farm of twenty acres or over was told that he should have this sum for areas containing less than twenty acres. Any one who could pay the deposit and bring satisfactory evidence that he was industrious and that he knew how to farm was accepted.

Few who applied for farms had a sufficient sum of money for the first payment on the land and the necessary improvements. Their incomes, however, depended on improving their farms as much as possible. This must be done before intensive cultivation could begin. Each settler could borrow a maximum of $2,500 from the government and the vast majority of them needed this maximum. It was soon seen that the borrowed money could be used to better advantage if its outlay was directed by the government; for along with money four-fifths of the settlers were in need of expert advice and direction. In other words, the best results were obtained where service and credit were combined.

II

The Rochester Settlement: The Colony Plan

The Rochester Settlement will serve as a good illustration. In this settlement were 285 farms of which 255 were taken as soon as the farms could be applied for. The settlers were on the ground waiting for the arrival of the opening day. These 255 settlers had come from Europe, New Zealand, Africa and North and South America. The methods of farming, the seasons, and the crops of their native countries were all different from those of this new land. If they had been left to build their houses, there would have been 255 heads of families looking for lumber, for windows, for hardware, cement and brick. Each would have sought carpenters, masons, and plumbers. They were without knowledge of the merchants they would trade with and knew nothing of the artisans whom they would seek to employ. They were entirely ignorant of local prices and materials and they were in a situation which compelled them to trade at once. They would, therefore, have been most likely to make bad bargains. Their houses would likely be unsuited to the climate and poorly built. Some would likely be shacks that would be eyesores to the settlement. And in the meantime while the head of the house was wasting his money, his family would be boarding at heavy expense in a nearby town, or living on the land under conditions that often would make the wife and children ill, despondent or homesick.

On the other hand, if the government took charge of house building, it could buy the material needed at wholesale for cash and low prices. It could build many houses quickly and thus permit economy in work and supervision. This would save time, money, and hardships for the settlers in a way which would increase the value of the government's security for the money advanced.

The government arranged, therefore, to build houses for settlers in preference to lending them money for this purpose. The first thought was to build the houses before offering the farms to the settlers. This would have the advantage of enabling a settler to go into a new home on the new farm. One contract for seventy houses was let and there were several others for smaller numbers than this.

But the plan of building houses in advance of settlement was seen to be a mistake and was abandoned for the reasons given below. To take the place of this there were prepared designs of fourteen houses which varied in cost from $750 to $3,500 and a booklet which gave elevations, floor plans and estimates of cost. The state would build any of these without charge for plans and with very low charge for supervision. A competent architect was employed to supervise the building work and he soon had a considerable staff of draftsmen and supervisors of construction.

The houses were all built by contract, but since great numbers of these were at the same time open to competitive bidding a number of contracting firms soon gave special attention to them. The leading dealers in building material in Melbourne had the material for the houses most

preferred ready to be shipped at once and the whole arrangement for prompt construction was soon well organized. There were delays in some few cases that were due to the fact that much of the lumber used came from America. But generally speaking, settlers were usually living in their houses in about six weeks after the contracts were signed.

If a settler disliked any of the stock plans, new ones could be prepared, for which he paid the actual cost; or if he chose, he could arrange to build his own house. Three-fourths of the settlers had a preference for the houses built by the state. In order to protect the families of settlers from any serious discomfort and to let them go on their own farms as soon as they arrived, portable houses were bought by the state and rented to them at sums which merely paid the expenses of the service while the permanent houses were being built.

As the things leading to success or failure became more distinctly realized, it was found profitable by the state to do more and more for the settler. A highly important thing which the state found it necessary to undertake was the leveling of the land and the building of some lateral ditches on the farm. This kind of work was not for a farmer. It was a task for engineers or men who had special skill and experience. To prepare land properly for irrigation, implements and equipments are required that farmers cannot afford and knowledge is necessary that settlers ignorant of irrigation commonly lack. Even with proper tools, a special knowledge and experience is required to prepare a field so that water will flow over and irrigate it evenly.

The cost of this preparatory work and the necessity for doing it well increases with the value of crops grown and with the flatness of the slopes. A large portion of the irrigation land of Victoria had a fall of only one or two feet to the mile, which made the proper location of lateral ditches and the careful preparation of the surface a matter of special importance. Another reason why this work in Victoria was undertaken by the state at the outset was that the state was in a favorable position to do so. As it was continually buying new land and opening up new areas for settlement, it could enter into contracts for the leveling of large areas with men well equipped for the work and therefore able to do it at a low figure. At the end of five years, land in Victoria was being prepared for irrigation for less than two-thirds of the cost of the same kind of work in America; and this difference was due not to the difference of wages, but to the superior organization of the work and the skill of the workmen in the Australian state.

It was very necessary too for the state to furnish expert advice and practical aid in buying the horses and cows needed on the settlers' farms. Without this assistance, the settlers fared badly. Men from Europe preferred dairy herds, but cows were not to be had locally in the numbers required. If they were bought at auction sales, they were too often of inferior type and of little value. An experienced buyer was therefore engaged by the state, and he visited the remote dairying districts, inspected cattle, and bought them for the settlers in carload lots. Time

and money were so effectively saved by this plan that in some instances settlers from Europe were able to be living in their own houses and making good livings from their own dairy herds, within 30 days after their arrival in Australia.

In both Victoria and New South Wales settlers were given aid in making their farms the home of pure-bred stock. Dairy bulls of fine breeding were bought by Victoria and furnished to associations of settlers on a yearly rental. It has already been explained that the government aided the settlers in buying horses and cattle, but in New South Wales the same arrangement was made with regard to hogs. Men who wished these and did not possess the money to pay for them, paid a deposit of 25 per cent and the remainder when the hogs were sold.

Finally it became necessary for the state to organize the settlers for coöperative buying and selling, and to provide a competent superintendent for each district. It soon became evident that buyers would take advantage of small farmers kept at home by the unending work of cultivation and improvement, if they were not assisted to organize to sell as a community.

A large portion of the land had been planted to alfalfa. When the hay was ready for sale the dealers began to combine and depress the price. This would have been very injurious to the interests of a farmer with a small stock of a few tons, had the government not come to his aid. But the government organized and assisted in financing an alfalfa pool, found a good market in India, and broke the combination of dealers.

The farmers of the settlement were so organized as to market milk to an advantage. Later, when orchards came into bearing the government bought and installed machinery to can and dry the surplus products. Closer settlement in Victoria has therefore developed into a working partnership between the government and the farmers which is likely to extend over a period of many years.

Every district had a man for superintendent who possessed tact, sympathy, and good business judgment. It was necessary for him to know the conditions of his district. He protected the settler and was the government's danger signal. He showed beginners the things to be done, cheered the despondent, and told the shiftless element to mend their ways. He knew both the workers and the idlers. He could inform those in authority whether a settler deserved to be helped or not.

The superintendent was the prominent person in the settlement. He soon became deeply interested in his task. Neither time nor effort were spared to keep his settlement moving and to see that no one failed where success was possible.

Experience with settlers disgruntled by political agitators showed that it was essential for the commission to know at all times just how much progress each settler was making and that this information must be on record in a form to be used. With this object in view a form was prepared on which the operation of a farm could be entered. It showed the acres which the state had planted and the acreage of the different crops

on the farm. On it were put down all the buildings and those erected since the last report was made. It showed the number of livestock and the amount of income obtained since the last report period. There was a space provided for the settler to make any statement he desired. He could state his grievances if he had any, or if he was satisfied he could say so. There was a space for the superintendent to outline the advice the settler had received from him. A report of this kind was prepared for each farm by the settler and the superintendent every six months and then filed for reference. These reports were prepared on the farm as a general rule, and therefore represented the joint knowledge of the settler and the superintendent. At the bottom of each form was a space for a confidential report by the superintendent about the conditions of the farm and the conduct of the settler. This was of considerable service in dealing with settlers who were in arrears. If the report stated that there had been illness in the settler's family or that there had been a crop failure which he could not help or that there was any other sufficient reason why he should not be pressed for money, he was not pressed; but if the report stated, as some did state, that the settler had been negligent about performing his domestic duties, that he spent most of his time in town, or that he was a member of the carpet slipper brigade, the application for advances of money or postponement of payments was refused.

At the beginning there was some objection by settlers to preparing these reports, but finally they came to understand that this review of the situation and the thorough understanding of each individual's condition at headquarters helped to secure fair and sympathetic treatment of every deserving settler; and with this knowledge, the thrifty and industrious all come to be staunch supporters of the records. Preparing these reports provided the superintendent with an intimate personal knowledge he needed of each settler's affairs, and as it was a part of a system, there was no reflection on individuals as would have been the case if the reports had been required only of those who were in arrears.

In addition to the direct aid given the farmer, the government in Victoria extended the railroads owned by the state or built new ones sometimes in advance of settlement, so that no district would be lacking in transportation facilities. In this way the government was building up the revenues of one of its agencies and at the same time assisting settlers to get started more easily and at less cost.

III

Market Towns and Marketing

Moreover, in view of the fact that the purpose was to build up a sound and attractive rural civilization the commission located and helped to build towns. In Victoria, where the problem was to make over an old settlement, there was not opportunity for town building equal to that found in the development of a new area as in New South Wales. It will therefore be profitable to look for a moment at the state-built towns of New South Wales, designed by Mr. Harley Griffin of Chicago.

Leeton and Griffin, two of the towns laid out by Mr. Griffin, are good illustrations of how attractive rural life can be made. They have broad streets for the benefit of business and curving tree-shaded streets for the residences. The factories are so advantageously located that they can be reached by direct railroad sidings. And there is ample provision for the life of children, as every residence block is provided with a playground.

The plans for sewerage, for electric power and lights, and for the location of the public buildings and parks were all made before any houses were erected. When everything was perfectly ready—when the streets had been laid out, the blocks cut up into lots, and assessed value put on business and residence lots, the lots were sold at auction to those who would pay the largest prices reckoned on annual rentals. The buyers got a perpetual lease-tenure; that is, instead of buying a freehold title which would give them the right to sell whenever they pleased and to whomever they pleased and to whomever they preferred they bought the perpetual right to use the land so long as the conditions specified in their deeds were complied with. These conditions made it compulsory that the buyer should use the property for the purpose designated and required him or some member of his family to live on the property. The deeds granted the descendants of the buyers the right to inherit the leases.

At the very beginning in New South Wales, the government began to make provisions for marketing the settlers' produce. In the towns located in the Murrumbidgee irrigated area in New South Wales, the state established a packing plant, a butter factory, and soon afterwards a fruit canning factory. In addition to these a nursery was started.

It was thought that the doing of these things would increase the value of the state land to be thrown open later for settlement and would thus help to insure to the state the return of the money expended.

In Victoria a large cold storage warehouse was built and maintained by the Melbourne government, where all perishable products could be sent and chilled preparatory to being shipped to Europe. The government, if requested to do so, took charge of shipments for individual settlers, loaned money to coöperative associations of farmers to build factories for curing bacon, and at a later time bought and established factories for canning and drying fruit.

In extending all this aid to settlers, the idea was kept before them that they should, as quickly as they could do so, take hold of and manage things themselves, that some of them as soon as possible would be expected to serve on the boards that looked after the settlements. It is sure that the partnership existing between the state and the settlers is very likely to continue for many years; and so long as it is financially sound there is no reason whatever why it should be discontinued.

These details come from Elwood Mead's Helping Men to Own Farms. The author of this book is the man who engineered the farm colony successes in both Victoria and California.

They are given in order to pass on to the people of North Carolina through the Year-Book of the club, the practical business details of state-aid to home and farm ownership. It is a new and unconsidered subject in this state, but is nearly a half century old elsewhere.

Nowhere does the plan add anything to the burdens of any taxpayer. The state does not lend a dollar of the taxpayers' money. It lends its credit merely. It puts money into its treasury by issuing state bonds, or selling debenture bonds based on land mortgages, and it passes this money on to home and farm owners for productive purposes. It is an investment enterprise worked out in terms of solvency and surpluses for the state treasury. It is a dividend-yielding business, not a charity. The interest the state receives from borrowers on real estate securities is from a half to one per cent more than the state pays on its bonds, and in New Zealand the net profit for the dominion treasury is around a half million dollars a year.

But the state borrows money cheaply and the amortization charges are much less than the rents the borrowers formerly paid.

The day will come—it may be near at hand—when the states of America will be forced to follow the lead of New Zealand, Australia, Denmark, England, Ireland and Canada.

March 8, 1922.

HELPING MEN TO OWN FARMS IN AMERICA, IN CANADA, IN VARIOUS STATES OF THE UNION, IN THE McRAE COLONIES, IN NORTH CAROLINA

MISS A. O. CATO, Gaston County

In the North Carolina Club this year, state-aid to home and farm ownership in England, Scotland, Ireland, Denmark and New Zealand has been considered. Tonight we direct our attention (1) to Canada, (2) to the various states of the Union, and (3) to the MacRae farm colonies in the Lower Cape Fear country of North Carolina.

Soldier Settlements in Canada

Canada is leading America in the provision of homes and farms for her war veterans. She is apportioning her land to the men who fought to preserve it. "She has aided her heroes in turning their swords into plowshares and assisted them in getting on to land where they can use the plow to enhance national prosperity in peace as they wielded the sword to maintain national existence in time of war. In peace Canada has seen fit to loan money to her sons who in time of war loaned their lives to the nation."

Canada sent 418,000 men to France out of a population of about 8,000,000. Sixty thousand Canadian soldiers lost their lives in the great war. When the war was over Canada brought back 338,000 of her sons to face the problem of taking up civil life in a competitive field. A great national debt was hanging over the country. Canada paid her own way. About 155,000 of those returning were more or less weakened by wounds. Many were without jobs and about fifty per cent were men with families. Their average age was around thirty-five. "Canada went about re-establishing these men with the same fine spirit that moved her in getting them into the army."

A Soldier Settlement Board of three members was appointed in February 1918 in accord with a parliamentary act of August 29, 1917—"An act to assist returned soldiers in settling upon the land and to increase agricultural production." The essential features of this act are the bestowal of agricultural credit for acquiring and improving land, for paying off incumbrances, erecting buildings, purchasing stock, etc. It also provides for the gift of Dominion land in Western Canada. The loans are intended primarily to assist in developing free Dominion lands, secondarily to assist the provinces when possible.

Of 59,331 applicants 43,063 were accepted by the board. These 43,000 returned soldiers are today farming a total area of nearly five million acres, which is more than half the entire cultivated acreage of North Carolina. Of the total number of soldiers who went on the land under the supervision of the Soldier Settlement Board 19,771 received help in the form of loans at 5 per cent. The loans for the purchase of land were for a period of twenty and twenty-five years. Loans for stock and equipment were over a period of five years.

The applicants for aid were required to pay down 20 per cent of the cost of land, stock, and equipment. If when examined by experts they were found incapable of managing their own farms they were sent to a vocational training school. Each applicant who wanted to purchase a farm selected a place and ascertained the lowest price the owner would take. Then he reported to the board, which sent an inspector to appraise the farm in question. In this way $3,632,421 has been cut from the sum total of the prices stated as the lowest at which the owners would sell. Stock and equipment were also bought under the supervision of the Settlement Board experts, and it is estimated that a saving of about 30 per cent was thus effected. Loans were granted individuals up to $7,500. As high as $4,500 might be had for land purchase; $2,000 might be obtained for the purchase of stock and equipment and $1,000 for permanent improvements. A soldier homesteading on Dominion lands could get as much as $3,000 for stock, equipments and permanent improvements. On agricultural lands, already owned by settlers, the board was empowered to grant as high as $3,500 for the removal of incumbrances, up to $2,000 for permanent improvements provided the total did not exceed $5,000.

The government seems to be well protected, as a small profit has been realized on the 200 foreclosures.

Some of the settlers have had hard times. To be sure! Homesteading is no man's idea of a pleasant vacation, and farming on land already cultivated does not rank high as out-door pastime. It does not appeal to idlers.

But the majority of the returned soldiers who went on the land in Canada under the supervision and with the aid of the Soldier Settlement Board are winning their way, establishing permanent homes and adding very materially to the wealth and stability of the nation they suffered to save. Among the reports of progress in Ottawa are many stories of hardships endured and victories won as moving as tales of battles fought and objectives gained in France.

Two things are to be noted in the Canadian plan:

1. It varies from farm colony plans that experience dictated in England, Australia and California. The beneficiaries in Canada settle where they please upon separate and widely scattered farm holdings.

2. The help is extended not as a charity, but as a plain business proposition—an investment upon favorable terms of interest rates and long-term repayments. The Dominion gets back all it loans and something more, while the soldiers are comfortably settled on farms of their own upon terms they could never have secured without the aid of the state. It cannot be too often repeated that in no country of the world is state-aid a charity but a profitable business proposition on part of the state; that no state loans the money of its taxpayers, but the money of investors in a solvent business. It issues state bonds or debenture bonds bearing low rates of interest, and passes on the money thus secured at a slightly higher rate to settlers. I repeat that state-aid to home and farm owners is a business not a charity.

State-Aid to Farm Ownership in the United States

Four states of the Union are now making direct loans for the purchase of homes and farms, North and South Dakota, Oklahoma, and California. Twelve states are investing treasury funds in agricultural mortgages. They are: Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, Indiana, Maine, Missouri, Montana, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Dakota and Utah. Eighteen states have Soldier Settlement Acts on their statute books. In most of these acts the state provides the land on the basis of reimbursement on the amortization plan, figured on low interest rates, and running through a long period with small annual payments to discharge the debt at maturity; also in most instances short-term loans are made under state supervision, "apparently assuming that actual money loans will be made by the Federal government." The states with such provisions are: Arizona, California, Colorado, Idaho, Kansas, Maine, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, North Carolina, New Mexico, Oregon, South Dakota, Tennessee, Utah, Washington and Wyoming.

As in North Carolina, the Soldier Settlement Acts in these states are dead-letter laws, except in California, Oklahoma, Oregon, and the Dakotas. The Canada law works, but in the main the Soldier Settlement Acts are a failure in the United States, where the emphasis is on a cash bonus rather than on homes and farms. As California is to be covered in a later study, we confine our attention to the working of state-aid to farm ownership in Oklahoma and South Dakota.

1. Oklahoma is often thought of by Easteners as being a state of wild western oil and cattle towns, filled with such folks as Buffalo Bill. It is a state of mind rather than a reality, for primarily Oklahoma is a farming state that is trying to make it possible for tenants to own farms. Oklahoma saw that her free homesteaders were fast becoming tenants and renters. In less than twenty years of statehood she saw more than 50 per cent of her farms cultivated under a tenancy system. The farm land in this state is especially attractive to speculators since there is always a possibility of finding oil. To remedy the tenancy situation Oklahoma is going a step further than any other state or country has gone before. She proposes to lend to worthy investors the full amount needed for the purchase of a farm, provided the borrower lives on and cultivates the land.

A farmer may purchase a tract of land, not to exceed 160 acres, on which he may borrow from the great school fund up to 50 per cent of the appraised value of the farm. He gives a first mortgage. Semi-annually the borrower pays 4 per cent on the principal plus the interest at 5 per cent thus discharging the entire debt in twenty years. This plan went into effect July 1, 1921. About $35,000,000 of the public school endowment fund has been thus loaned. The law not only furnishes cheap money for the farmers who have such loans, but it materially lowers mortgage rates all over the state, or so it is declared. The second mortgage to cover balance of the purchase price is made from a special state fund. Not over $2,000 may be borrowed on a second mortgage. The amount is

small as the purpose is to help as many farmers as possible. The fund provided by the state to be loaned on second mortgages is about a half million dollars. When this amount has been loaned the state proposes to guarantee and to sell the second mortgages at par, and thus retains the proceeds. The plan creates a revolving fund which is unlimited in size. There has so far been no loss of funds and the leading people including the governor believe that this movement is bringing a very desirable change in the farm citizenship of Oklahoma.

Mr. A. J. S. Shaw, the manager of the Land Settlement Board, says: "The state has never lost a penny on its school fund loans, though it has had to make a few foreclosures. Already it has brought about a feeling of greater stability among farmers."

The Oklahoma plan of loans upon separate, individual farm holdings is similar to the plan of Canada. The plan is too new to pass judgment upon it, but it is in sharp contrast with the group-settlement plan of England, Australia, and California, which is a tried and proven success.

2. South Dakota has a rural credit system which went into effect in 1917. The state went into the business of loaning money to the farmers because the State Rural Credit Board, the Federal Farm Loan Board and the local banks were unable to furnish the farmers the money they needed. The state sells its bonds to obtain money, and lends it to farmers on the basis of first mortgages on the land. The farmer pays a small fraction of a per cent more than the rate of interest the state pays on the bonds. The state appropriated $200,000 to put the system in operation, all of which has been paid back except $35,000 and the board can turn this amount over to the state treasury at any time. All of this has been accomplished since 1917. During the last three years farm loans to the amount of $30,000,000 have been made. The greater part of this loan was at 5½ per cent, part at 6 per cent and a very small part at 7 per cent, which is the rate of interest at present. It is estimated that it will be necessary to increase this amount to $50,000,000 after which the annual repayments will supply all needs for current funds.

Quoting from an article in The Literary Digest for August 21, 1921: "As compared with previous prevailing rates of interest the amount already loaned is annually saving the farmers the state over more than a half million dollars. Interest rates in general have come down in the State since the law was enacted."

In order to borrow money from the state a farmer must be a resident, must own land or guarantee his intention to buy, must purchase machinery, make improvements or pay off debts. He must furnish the state good title and give a first mortgage on the land. Farmers may borrow up to 70 per cent of the value of their land and 40 per cent of the insured value of improvements. Borrowers have the option of paying all or part of their loans after five years. An amortization plan is provided which kills or brings the debt to an end in thirty years. By the amortization method the payments are so gradual that farmers are afforded a safe foundation for solvency. With reasonable success they need not fear foreclosures.

Quoting again from the Literary Digest: "With this gradual payment of mortgage debt local banks are glad to make short-time loans with only a second mortgage or the farmer's own personal credit as security. This system stabilizes financial matters in general for the farmer and is proving a great factor in developing the agriculture of the state."

The MacRae Farm Colonies

We have done nothing as yet in North Carolina in the way of state-aid to home and farm ownership. So far this problem has been left to the building loan associations and other private agencies.

In conclusion I am giving a brief sketch of the MacRae farm colonies in the Lower Cape Fear country of North Carolina. It is a private enterprise in small-scale farming worked out on the colonization plan. It is the plan that has been most successful and is considered by students of the question to be the safest and sanest plan for state-aid.

Mr. Hugh MacRae, a banker in Wilmington, whom Gerald Stanley Lee calls "an inspired millionaire," is responsible for the financing and working out of this plan in the colonies near Wilmington.

In 1906 Mr. MacRae started his first colony. Today there are three or more of these colonies, cultivating five thousand acres, and supporting three thousand colonists, representing nine different nationalities. The average farm is ten acres, which is intensively cultivated. Coöperative methods are everywhere in use. Coöperatively many modern machines and labor saving devices are owned. Truck farming is the chief means of support, but is supplemented with dairying, poultry, and either cotton or tobacco or other farm money crops.

The original plan was for each settler to own and cultivate ten acres. In some instances they now own twenty acres where the farmers possess considerable stock. The original price of the land was $30 an acre for woodland and $50 for cleared land. Cleared land is now offered at from $50 to $150 an acre according to the condition of the land, improvements and so on. Three-room houses are built to which the settler adds as many rooms as ability and necessity call for.

The colonist company provides two advisers, a superintendent and a social worker. The three farm colonies are each a rural social community, arranged about a center of social interest. At Castle Hayne the settlers have built a community building in which meetings of all kinds, dances, fairs and the like are held. The terms of the purchase are suited to the individual needs of the farmers.

Theodore Roosevelt pronounced Mr. MacRae's farm colony plan to be a remarkable contribution to constructive statesmanship in rehabilitating the farm civilization of America. So far it appeals to the knee-farmers of the Old World Countries—a type of farming in which the Poles, Portuguese, Japanese and Chinese get rich under American conditions, but which American farmers instinctively shun.

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THE CALIFORNIA WAY

J. A. DICKEY, Alamance County

Outline

1. The California Plan of Helping Men Own Farms.
   - (a) The Law.
   - (b) The Machinery for Executing the Law.
   - (c) Business Details.
     - (1) Getting the Capital.
     - (2) Transferring Land to Settlers.
     - (3) Preparing the Land.
     - (4) Choosing the Settlers.
2. Purposes Involved in State Colonization.
   - (a) Economic.
   - (b) Social.
     - (1) Coöperation.
     - (2) Community Spirit.
     - (3) Cure of Social Insulation and Social Aloofness.
3. Proposed Law for Developing Farm Colonies in North Carolina.

I

The Land Settlement Act of California was passed in 1917. Section I of this act declares: The Legislature believes that land settlement is a problem of great importance to the welfare of all the people of the state of California and for that reason through this act endeavors to improve the general economic and social condition of agricultural settlers.

To put meaning into the act, it was provided that a Land Settlement Board be created. This Board was appointed by the governor and was composed of five progressive business and professional men, who were to serve without pay. The Board employed an executive officer in the person of Dr. Elwood Mead, who engineered a similar experiment in the Australian States and was chiefly responsible for its success there. The specific object of this Board according to the Act, was "to provide employment and rural homes, to promote closer agricultural settlement, to assist deserving and qualified persons to acquire small improved farms, to demonstrate the value of adequate capital and organized direction in subdividing and preparing agricultural land for settlement, and to provide homes for farm laborers."

A fund of $260,000 was placed at the disposal of this Board, "out of funds in the treasury not otherwise appropriated." This fund was to be repaid in 50 years at 4 per cent interest, except $10,000 which was to be used as a general expense fund in getting started. With this money the Board purchased at an average of $100 an acre 6,300 acres of land in Butte County, seven miles from Chico, a city of 18,000, and one-half mile from Durham, a station on the Southern Pacific Railway. The land was

in two tracts, 3,680 acres in one and 2,359 in the other. The Board paid cash for the last named tract and after making a payment on the first tract there was not sufficient money left with which to finance the development of the land. More money was required for irrigatiou work, in the preparation of land and for building houses, so a loan of $125,000 was obtained from the Federal Land Bank. Though this loan was made to an association of settlers, the money was turned over to the Board. On this loan the settlers pay 5½ per cent interest and have 34 years in which to repay the principal.

An actual beginning was now about to be made by an American State in helping men to own farms on the colony plan. It was a move toward solving the great tenancy problem that is now menacing the agricultural and industrial life of every state.

Irrigation is a fundamental problem and a very costly one to solve in almost any farm area in California. The land that the Board had purchased was no exception. To irrigate a farm, though a small one, is a very costly undertaking and it is holding back many would-be farmers in California. But this Board was orgauized to meet the conditions that were stumbling blocks to individuals. Having 6,000 and more acres to develop it could afford to secure the best and most efficient machinery for this work, machinery that was out of the question for the individual farmer. A 75 horse-power tractor and other equipment was purchased and experts secured to operate it. The accomplishments were beyond what was possible by individuals and resulted in greatly lowering the cost of the land to the settlers.

The study aud classification of soils, a relatively new feature of agricultural science, has been but little used in rural plannings, but here the variation in soils was to be the governing factor in fixing the price of land also the numbers of acres in a farm. The Act gave the Board the privilege of calling in the dean of the Agricultural College as its expert adviser in this matter. With the experts from Berkeley, the Board secured soil surveys, determined the size of the farms, crops best suited to the soils and the proper location for buildings, etc. With the soil map the tract was divided into farms varying in size from 9 to 300 acres and in value from $48.50 to $235.00 an acre. By this method the farmers got the advantage of expert knowledge at a minimum cost in a very important matter. It also helped the farmers to select farms best suited to their individual requirements and further served as a guide in cultivation.

While surveyors contoured the surface and soil experts mapped what lay beneath the surface, the Board was busy making the Stanford land ready for settlement. It hired and bought teams and implements and put them to leveling the land, and seeding some of it to alfalfa, while other lands were plowed and planted to grain. It secured a foreman who was an expert at preparing fields for irrigation. By May, 1918, with the water right agreement signed, the soil maps completed, and the farm boundaries fixed, and the land prepared for pitching crops, the Board had spent nearly $300,000. It was now ready to offer ready-made farms to

settlers. Farms already on the way to yielding returns, and farms with growing grains looked good to experienced farmers. There was an income in sight.

When the farms of the first unit were ready for settlement, notice was given by the press and by postcard to those who had applied for farms. In selecting the applicants the Board had to deal with one of its most fundamental problems. Care and caution were necessary. Each applicant was asked to fill out a blank questionnaire showing his experience, the amount of capital he had and his plans for improving his farm. From this information and the superintendent's concept of the applicant gained in going over the farm with him, the choice was made. There were many times as many applicants as there were farms. This showed that the home-owning instinct was not dead. But, says Dr. Mead, the Board took particular caution not to make the prospects too rosy. Said he: We told each one that the outlay would be large; that the settlers would have to work hard for the first two or three years in order to succeed; that the profits of farming were small; that the beginner would have to face certain hardships and trials. But men saw an opportunity to undertake that which they had feared to do alone and unaided, and with renewed hope and the loyal coöperation of the state through the Board, they were now getting the opportunity they had longed for and so they came in numbers far beyond the number of farms offered.

When the selections had been made, the Board reports that most of the successful applicants were found to be men who had formerly been tenants. They were required to have from $1,500 to $2,500 of their own money. As the Board reasoned "an attempt to pay interest on the whole cost of the farm is to impose a burden heavier than the profits of agriculture on a new farm will stand and heavier than most families will carry." The Board could sell a man who had $1,500 a farm valued at $4,500 and then make him a loan "on security of permanent improvements, stock and farm implements, such loans to be secured by mortgage or mortgages, deed or deeds of trust on such permanent improvements, stocks or farm implements, and the total amount of any such loan, together with money spent by Board on improvements already specified, (for dwellings and buildings) not to exceed three thousand dollars on any one farm allotment, or two thousand dollars on any one farm laborer's allotment." This loan with the balance due on the farm was made at 5 per cent interest and extended over a period of twenty years on the amortization plan. The settlers paid an additional one per cent a year toward dismissing the loan, making 6 per cent in all on the 20-year loan. The $1,500 of required capital is about 10 per cent of the average cost of equipped farms in California.

The land was put into a condition most conducive to productivity by the experts of the Board, and in some instances it was seeded to grain and alfalfa. The expense incurred was of course added to the purchase price. Still the Board was able to offer these farms to the settlers at prices less than improved farms elsewhere would have cost. The speculator

and land shark had been eliminated and everything that was bought and everything that was done was bought and done in terms of scrupulous business standards.

So far nothing has been said about the dwellings for settlers. While this was an exceedingly important part of the whole scheme, nothing definite was done until the farms had been selected and the applicants approved. Ample opportunity was given each settler to satisfy his own tastes and the needs of his family. Which does not mean that all were not to conform to a planned building scheme but it was to mean and did mean that the dwellings were not all to be alike. Dr. Mead says in this connection: "A feature of the Durham development has been the help given to settlers in planning and building their houses and other farm buildings by an architect and farm engineer." But the help did not stop with planning. All building material was bought in carload lots and the work of construction contracted for on a competitive basis. A great saving was effected in this one particular detail of farm development. Imagine these men being thrown on the mercies of various dealers in buying the material necessary for their new homes and having to depend on securing carpenters wherever they could be found to do the work.

Looking a little further ahead, the Board saw that at certain seasons of the year the farmers would require more labor than would ordinarily be at hand, and so provision was made for dwellings for twenty-four farm workers. Lots of two and three acres were laid off for settlers desiring to be farm workers in homes of their own, with sufficient ground for gardens and poultry. These lots were sold to the farm workers for 5 per cent of the purchase price cash and the balance amortized on the same plan as that of the other settlers.

There were now one hundred farm families and 24 farm workers settled on these 6,300 acres of land. The process of accomplishing this feat was apparently so simple that the influence of it on the agricultural life of California and other states is liable to be overlooked. It was simple enough, but ready-made farms offering shelter and dividends the very first year, at a minimum price, on long-term credit at low rates of interest were a new thing in America. Delegations from every state in the Union and from seven foreign countries have visited this settlement in Northern California.

But the story is not yet complete. "In planning the Durham settlement, the Board realized that its hardest problem was not merely to settle people on the land but to get them to stay there in contentment. During the last fifty years there has been an exodus from farms in almost every land, as never before in the history of the world. The average man born on the farm has developed a dislike for it, he has left it for the city, and has rarely ever returned. Men who live in cities feel that they are parts of an organized society, while the men who live in the country feel the lack of organized rural society and the lack of educational and other advantages. The Durham settlement was organized to meet these adverse conditions. It was necessary at Durham to organize

the business mind of the farmers to meet the business conditions of the city. "A new social order had to be created. Recreation and social enjoyment had to have a place. Coöperation had to be organized in order to restore the former life of the countryside, to bring back some of its industries, and to regain for the farmer a control of the sale of farm products, results which can be achieved only by bringing the people of the community to think and work together."

Thus while the land was being made ready a coöperative stock breeders' association was organized among the settlers. Committees were appointed to visit and inspect dairy cattle, beef cattle, hogs and sheep and to purchase in carload lots the necessary stock that each settler would need. Later it was found that five tubercular cattle had got into the settlement. A community meeting was held and it was decided that the animals should be killed and that the community as a whole should stand one-half of the loss incurred. An expert veterinarian was employed to keep the cattle free from disease. This plan was later to play an important part in securing top prices for their milk. All stock was bought under the direction of the veterinarian and through the association.

The farms were soon producing surplus dairy and poultry products, livestock of all kinds, hay, grain, and truck. But the individual farmer was in no position to market the milk from his small dairy, or the few extra tons of hay, or the few hundred bushels of grain or the few pigs and calves. Besides, he was busy building fences, planting and harvesting crops, etc. Yet from every farm there were various surplus products and it was upon the sales of these that the farmer must depend to pay for his farm. Finding a buyer that would give fair prices for these small quantities was one of the things that could not be neglected. On it depended success or failure. And so the Coöperative Stock Breeders' Association became a marketing association and employed an efficient sales-agent to handle all the products of the colony. As a result, the Durham farmers are getting a premium on their milk. The tubercular-free cattle and the up-to-date methods of handling milk in the settlement are advertised. Made-in Durham placards are common in the best hotels of Northern California. Special sales are not confined to milk alone. One farmer built up a special demand for his alfalfa, another is paying special attention to pure-bred hogs.

A coöperative cold storage plant was built at Chico for the storage of meats and vegetables with individual compartments for families. Here their perishables are held until market prices offer a profit. During the summer farmers bring corn, beans, peas, and other vegetables in and they are kept fresh for several months. The saving on peas alone on a glutted market more than paid for the rent of an apartment.

The Board reserved a plot of 23 acres to be used as a community center. The settlers have erected a $10,000 community hall in which moving pictures are shown, and games and other recreations are provided. It is a neighborhood institution. A full-time health officer is employed to look after the health of their homes.

The settlers did not have the money to enter into all these coöperative schemes, neither could they have secured it from banks and commercial agencies, but the Board loaned them 60 per cent of the cost of the various enterprises, thus enabling them to rise to the highest efficiency in the development of their farms and in the preservation of their health and energy. The state has become a partner with the people through the suprintendent who lives in the colony, studies the needs and desires of his people, and offers encouragement and suggestions where they are needed. Coöperation is the vital force in rural progress and its material advantages are no greater than its social benefits.

In one instance a man was milking six cows and his farm was producing feed for ten; the superintendent called upon the settler and showed him the chances and benefits of ten cows. He had the labor to take care of the increase. He readily agreed to the proposition. The superintendent loaned him the money and had the veterinarian assist him in the purchase. His weekly milk check advanced from $31 to $52 within three weeks.

Recently a settler's barn burned, destroying his hay, a part of his implements, and his horse. When the superintendent called and asked if he needed any assistance, he replied that his neighbors had built back his barn and though his loss was a severe blow he saw no reason why he could not go on with his farm on a paying basis as he could not fail among such neighbors.

Coöperation is the mainspring in this settlement and the community life and spirit evidenced would be impossible in scattered solitary farmsteads. Whatever has been done for the social life and welfare of the people at Durham has been done as a part of the practical task of making a living. The colony plan itself led them to understand that if they were to get full value out of their work, they had to buy and sell as a community.

An important question now arises, did the state make a financial success of the undertaking? As stated in the outset, any scheme for helping men to own their homes must be a solvent business enterprise for the state as well as for the land owner. The facts are that California could have afforded to give the Board the $260,000 outright because of the increase in taxes derived from the 6,300 transformed wilderness acres. A happy community of a hundred families would have replenished the state treasury, with something over. But the legislature loaned this money to the Board and the Board loaned it to the settlers, because the State is engineering an investment, not a charity. Three years from the date of loan to the Board the farmers had nearly paid back this loan. Less than 3 per cent of their semi-annual payments were in arrears and the superintendent reported that practically all would be paid in before 30 days after due date. Sickness and other hindrances had overtaken a few, said he, but they would all be able to catch up in a few months.

The settlers have developed the best herd of Holstein cattle in the state under the direction of a full-time veterinarian. They have bought the best blooded breeding animals to be had. They have water and lights in their homes. They have employed an expert sales-manager and are

coöperating to the limit in buying and selling and making life on the farm efficient, wholesome and satisfying. The annual inventory in 1920 showed that the state was $185,000 better off as a result of establishing this colony of farmers, though in reality the actual money netted by the state was the smallest gain in the matter.

Was it solvent? Was it good business? This depends on what the function of a state is. Is the state solely a political institution with no direct concern in human endeavor or in the individual success of its citizens? What was accomplished in California was only a detail of all the things that the state owes to itself and its citizens in making rural life livable.

The state of California thought well enough of the policy to authorize $10,000,000 more for the development of a larger colony at Delhi, in the south central section of the state, modeled on the Durham settlement. Before the development was ever started, the Board had enough applicants for farms to take up the entire area bought. These ten million dollars, by the way, were declined by the Board. The lesson could be taught the state without these millions.

Contrast this experience with that of Idaho where returned soldiers were offered land free, the only condition being that they were to live on it. There irrigation which was such a costly problem in the Durham and Delhi settlements was not a problem. The land was waiting free of all cost for development. The attempt ended in complete failure. Would-be settlers would go out and look it over and disappear. One man sent the committee word that if he had two lives to live he might try it for a while, but that otherwise he could not afford the time. The reason is plain. There were no social advantages whatever, he would have to bury himself and family for 40 years to get the place in condition to live on by which time he would have worn himself and wife out in the effort. Many of the best women God ever permitted to live have been buried in such attempts under stones marked "Rest in Peace"—the only peace and rest the poor creatures ever got.

As the Delhi development nears completion, we find the state placing in the hands of Dr. Mead a sum of money to be expended in making a state-wide survey of available lands for planned community development. That survey is already under way, and it is also expected to determine the amount of money that will be required to solve the tenant farm and home ownership problem of California, and to put agricultural life on the basis necessary to make country life efficient, wholesome and satisfying.

Since the success of the Durham and Delhi settlements has been demonstrated, a number of private companies have been organized for the same purpose. The Southern Pacific Railway Company and one other railway company have started developments. The Board has been offered many thousand acres of land by big holders such as Miller and Lux, and the Sutter Basin Company. They have agreed to give the state the same terms of payment extending over 36 years that the state extends to the farmers in the state colonies. They are joining in the policy to make

state-aid the policy of both public and private farm colonies. Business men are able to see what such a program of development will mean to the state aud to every business and every individual in the state. State-aid in the California way is destined to be an outstanding factor in the agricultural development of America.

II

The Purposes Involved in a State-Aid Plan

1. To decrease the landless population.

There are nearly 120,000 tenant farmers in North Carolina, both races counted, and this number increases at the rate of 12,000 every ten years. As a rule these tenants are in no way identified with the interests and activities of the community, such as churches, Sunday schools, farmers' clubs, and coöperative business enterprises, while their children attend school only irregularly. They move on an average once every three years. It is this class of people along with all other landless people that the colonization plan purposes to help—not as a charity, but as a loan to be repaid in due time at a low rate of interest; to afford an opportunity under favorable circumstances to become stable, responsible, home-owning citizens. Some of them have been so long in the throes of tenancy that all desire and hope have ebbed away. A tenant in one of the eastern counties, sitting in the door of his two-room house holding two small children waiting for his wife and daughter to prepare the meal while his mother in the last stages of tuberculosis lay iu an adjoining room, was asked if he didn't need more room. He replied that he hadn't thought about it.

To decrease the landless population by offering them a chance to become home owners in a manner that will enable them to pay for their homes and at the same time be self-respecting, forward-looking men rather than slaves, is the primary purpose of the colonization plan. It is not so much a problem of making two blades of grass grow where one formerly grew as it is a problem of making stable, self-respecting, responsible, home-loving citizens. This is possible only in community association and coöperation. It is impossible to condition homeless men for true citizenship so long as they are scattered over the entire state, only seven families to the square mile, counting both races. Community life and coöperative marketing will always be a difficult problem under such conditions.

2. To produce social-minded citizens in steadily increasing number.

North Carolina being a rural state with a scattered country population, unadjusted, irregulated individualism has long held sway. Farming in solitary farmsteads has a decided tendency to produce social aloofness, private-local thinking, and over-weening individualism. Every man is for himself, he thinks in terms of his own good and very little in terms of the community, with a minimum of pride and interest in community enterprise, such as schools, churches, good roads, sanitary conditions, and

community morals, law and order. The farmer is the last man to hold out against bonds for county hospitals, schools, good roads and the like, not that he isn't loyal but because he thinks in terms of his own little neighborhood. He will fight for his one-teacher school against the consolidated school. The colonization plan is designed to help him think in terms of the whole, to see that his interests are the interest of the community, and that the community's interests are his interests; that he can enjoy progress and prosperity only as he promotes progress and prosperity in the community.

3. To enable the farmer to use profit-producing machinery.

Modern industrial development has been on the basis of labor-saving, profit-producing machinery in factory systems. The average farmer has not been able to use machinery to a great extent, because his unit of operation is so small and the necessary machinery so expensive. But with the high price of labor and equipment he must now cultivate more acres than formerly to get the same profits as formerly. This is made possible in a colonization plan as in no other way. Farm machinery can be bought and used in common in a closely organized farm colony as in a factory plant, and what is more the farmers can market their products just as the sales-agent of a factory does.

4. To secure adequate capital and credit.

The increasing cost of farms and their equipment makes an adequate credit scheme a prime necessity for both tenants and farm owners. The farmer needs a system of credit as certainly as any other business man, but there are few systems designed to meet his needs. The reason is plain. No other business is conducted on the basis of individual production, individual marketing, and individual credit. If it were it would soon fail. The farmer as an individual has no control over the price that he is going to get for his products. At planting time the price may be such as to encourage the planting of this or that, but when he comes to sell his product current market prices may be disastrous. He has no standard method of preparing his products for the market, nor can he have with every farmer living unto himself. And then, he must not only have credit but credit in long-time loans, because his turn-over is once a year in the staple crops. The colony plan offers the most feasible plan of providing credit for farm operations. The colony experts can direct the use of credit and see that the venture is a good business risk. Also he can help make the conditions for success favorable. Credit in itself does not guarantee success to the farmer, but its proper use under favorable circumstances will increase his chances of success.

5. To secure the advantage of expert knowledge.

This is distinctively an age of experts. No business would dare attempt to operate without having world-wide information. No man more than the farmer needs knowledge of the conditions with which he must deal at home and abroad. He must compete with nature and human nature and learn to make both contribute to his business. He needs expert

advice in buying his stock, he needs expert advice in keeping his stock free from disease, he needs to know how to secure the best seed possible, he needs a selling and purchasing agent, he needs someone to study market conditions and advise him what to plant, he needs advice in helping to make the farm attractive and worth while in the eyes of his children. In fact the farmer has to deal with more factors than any other business or professional man. But alone and unaided he cannot afford all these things even though they are absolutely essential in this age of standardization and specialization. The colony plan affords him an opportunity to get these advantages along with everything else that affects his welfare.

The colony plan is an attempt to put farming on a business basis like that of other successful businesses. It is an attempt to raise it from the level of drudgery to the plane of modern life. It is an endeavor to provide improved facilities for farm homes—to guarantee all the social advantages of a refined community life under country conditions. It is a plan that offers to the farmer the advantages that other professions have been enjoying all these years. It is a plan that enables the state to take its citizens into partnership on a sound business basis and to give them the opportunity of becoming home-owning, home-loving, home-defending, stable, responsible citizens. It is a plan that offers to the young enthusiastic college graduate who desires to return to the soil an opportunity to do that for which he is best fitted by birth, experience and training. It is a plan that offers hope and a home to tenant farmers and farm laborers.

III

State-Aid for Farm Colonies in North Carolina

Those who are giving thought and study to this matter of helping men to own farms through the colonization plan agree that the state has the proper qualifications for managing planned rural communities. First, the state government readily commands the requisite financial credit. Second, sovereignty pertains especially to the landed domain of the commonwealth, and state authority is particularly competent to select and acquire the land needed for a farm colony. Third, the state, through its agricultural departments, and especially through its colleges and university, has at hand precisely the right men and women to launch these new farm communities, to protect them against mistakes, and to give practical application to the policy that the legislature may have adopted.

In a proposed state-aid law to help men to own farms through colonization, there are certain fundamental principles on which any legislative enactment must be founded.

The first of these is democracy. It must give equal opportunity to all and avoid class legislation. That is, the law must apply to all people desiring to own homes.

Solvency. It must be solvent for the state on the one hand and for the individual on the other. Any law not so constructed will in the end

defeat the purpose for which it was made. It must be a sound proposition both for the state and the individual. Farming as a business, as like or unlike any other business, must be taken into consideration. The interest of the individual whom the state desires to help must be given thorough consideration, for the scheme is based on his success.

Opportunity Only. The proposition must not only be solvent to the last degree but it must be regarded as a business proposition, as against any idea of a charity. It would defeat its own purpose if the idea of charity or patronage is prevalent. The plan extends an opportunity for men to help themselves. It creates conditions favorable to success. The simplicity and effectiveness of the California law might at first glance suggest that the state-aid law borders on charity, but the facts show that from the first it was based on strict business principles of coöperation, and that it was carried to success by a happy, hard-working group of citizens with the State's financial aid, but even more by the effective coördination of the state colleges, the State University, and other experts under the direction of the Board and its executive agent.

It must not add to the tax burden. The proposition, at this time in North Carolina, could best be handled on the basis of debenture bonds underwritten by the state's authorized agents, rather than on the basis of state bonds of the sort the state has heretofore issued. Debenture bonds in this instance represent unpaid debts secured by the real estate collateral of the borrowers. In other words the state lends no money paid into its treasury by taxpayers; what it lends is the money paid in by the purchasers of debenture bonds. The State Land Settlement Board, with a small sum to start with as in California, acquires title to a tract of land, sells this tract to the members of a farm colony, gives bonds for title to the colonists and takes mortgage deeds or trust deeds from them, and then with the authority of the state recovers the entire amount by the sale of debenture bonds maturing in twenty to thirty years. The interest on these bonds and a part of the principal are paid annually by the settlers. When fully paid the settlers obtain quit claim deeds to their farms. The whole transaction frees the taxpayers from tax burdens. It looks complicated, but it is simple as A B C's to business men accustomed to credit instruments. The way of it in California is plainer than print.

The Amortization Plan of Payment. This means small uniform payments over a term of years, at the end of which the debt is killed or amortized. Instead of paying rent the purchaser pays interest and something on the principal annually or biennially; and usually these lump payments are less than rent. The payments are calculated to liquidate the debt in 34 years. The average farmer can pay this, keep up his farm, and take an interest in the community life if the conditions surrounding it are favorable. And the colony plan is aimed at making these conditions favorable.

The Machinery of State-Aid to Farm Ownership

The entire machinery of this law should be placed in the hands of a Land Settlement Board, which stands with authority between the state on the one hand and the settlers on the other. This Board represents the state in a land loan business with the borrowers. This Board should be non-partisan, as for instance are the men who handle the proceeds of the state's fifty million bond issues for roads. They should be practical men who have demonstrated their ability in business. The law might define the personnel of the board as indicated. Their character must be beyond reproach, and their integrity must be beyond question. The Board could function best with a personnel of five, all of whom should serve for five years, and retire one at a time, if at all. The Board should select one from its number, preferably the one who has had experience in work of this kind, to be the executive officer of the Board. He should be a salaried officer, while the other members should serve without pay. If no member of the Board be qualified for executive work of this particular sort, the Board must have the right to go beyond its membership in choosing this officer.

The Board should be chosen by the governor, from the regional divisions of the state, perhaps with the approval of the senate. The Board should have the power to discharge its executive officer upon a unanimous vote. The executive must choose and superintend his staff without interference. Few restrictions should be placed upon the Board—none indeed unless required by sound business and sound government. All matters pertaining to the purchasing of land, the choosing of settlers, the preparation of land for occupation and so on must be left to the Board. They must be unhampered in working out the policies of the settlement board. Their problems will be many and difficult, but they are men chosen because they are experienced in settling difficult financial problems. They are five proven successful business men, chosen to represent the regional districts of the state, with an executive officer chosen for his special fitness. They have one great purpose and mission—to help men to own farms in a way that will make better citizens and rural life in North Carolina more efficient, satisfying and wholesome.

Business Details

Securing the Capital. To get capital to start with, it will be necessary for the state to lend money to the Board for a short time, until the Board can purchase the land, prepare it for settlers, sell it, and float debenture bonds protected by land titles, meantime borrowing from the Federal Land Bank as the California Board was easily able to do.

Selecting the Colony Site. The Board buys a tract of land where conditions and circumstances are best suited for success by the settlers. There are 22,000,000 idle acres in North Carolina, half of which were at one time under cultivation. The location of the first colony is a very important matter. Soil fertility, soil adaption to special commercial crops, nearness

to market and shipping centers offering swift transportation to the larger markets of the big wide world, improved highways, healthfulness, and so on and on are all matters of prime importance in choosing a location. Free land or cheap land is far from being the main matter in choosing a fit location.

Transferring the land to the settlers. Following the purchase of a colony site, the engineers of the Board get busy with soil surveys, subdivisions, plots of suitable size for farmers and farm workers. Roads, drains and ditches are to be constructed and the land prepared for immediate cultivation. The farm colony is to be mapped, sites for dwellings indicated, and convenient central areas reserved for the community house, the storage warehouse, the playground, and so on. Buildings are to be planned and erected, so that the new settlers may move into homes and get into action at once on ready-made farms. at a minimum cost, on easy terms of purchase. The state could do all these things cheaper than the individual farmer could do. The state for instance could purchase and operate the machiuery necessary to do the heavy work.

The Board could secure building plans of various sorts from engineers and farm architects, and give the settlers freedom of choice as to the dwellings they want. And the Board could build the houses as in California. The houses should not be built until the settler indicates his wishes and needs. But all buildings are to be built by the Board from lumber and material purchased and contracted for in wholesale lots.

The settler will need to have between $1000 and $1500 in cash to pay on his purchase and this will be made one of the standing requirements. The Board will lend him the balance. Figuring the size of the average farm around 60 acres, and the cost after preparation to be around $60 per acre, a settler with $1200 could borrow the balance from the Board. Also he could borrow 60 per cent of the cost of whatever buildings, stock, and farm implements he will need. The Board could not afford to lend him all told over $2,500 for buildings and equipments, and it take a mortgage on his tools, stock and the like to further secure this loan. The rate of interest must be as low as possible and by no meaus beyond 6 per cent. The bonds would bear a 4 per cent rate which would enable the Board to set a 5 per cent interest charge on loans. Farming has nowhere demonstrated that it can succeed with money borrowed beyond a 6 per cent interest charge.

The Board would give to the settler a bond for title uutil his farm is paid for. It should require the settler to live on the land the year round and not allow him to transfer it under 6 years except upon approval of the Board.

III

Choosing the Settlers

a. Choose only the settlers who possess the home-owning virtues—namely industry, thrift, sagacity, sobriety and integrity. And these are

fairly well determined by whether or not he has or can raise the $1200 required as a cash payment at the start. This fact would indicate that he has at least some of the home-owning virtues.

b. Choose only settlers of the same race for the same settlement.

c. Do not exclude people from outside the state but make it plain that applicants from North Carolina, other things being equal, will be given preference. Western farmers of character and capital would be valuable in any farm colony in North Carolina.

d. Character, trustworthiness and sobriety are absolutely essential.

f. Consider the initiative, originality, and aspiration of both husband and wife. The attitude of the wife is a matter of prime importance.

IV

Preparing the Land

The Board should use all the available help it can get from the state colleges in securing the necessary soil surveys, drainage surveys and the like. The farm land should be cleared of rocks, trees, stumps and other impediments to culture, and it should be set with growing crops if practicable. It is absolutely necessary to bring the land into a state of productivity before offering it to settlers; it ought to be actually producing crops if capable tenant farmers are to be attracted. All materials should be bought at wholesale and sold to the settlers at cost, such as building materials, farm implements, livestock, seeds, fencing, etc.

After the colony has gotten under way the responsibility of the Board is as great as ever. Some settlers will need encouragement and direction. Marketing will be a big problem. Ready cash must be secured for all surplus crops and the settlers shown how to prepare their products to sell to the best advantage. A sales manager will be needed. A coöperative association will be in order. A community center will have to be established. Livestock experts will be needed. The proper sanitary arrangements will have to be made to safeguard the health of the community. In fact the Board is now meeting its real test.

But we refrain from further attention to details. They all appear in full in Mead's Helping Men to Own Farms—the California law, the financial principles and procedures of the State Land Settlement Board, and the practices employed in business dealings with the settlers; and to this volume we refer the statesmen of North Carolina. It will be loaned upon request made to the Department of Rural Social Economics at the State University. The seminar library of this department has a complete file of all the books, bulletins, and magazine articles on the California Plan of State-Aid to Farm Ownership, and package libraries are loaned to students anywhere in North Carolina.

Finally

Will the colony scheme solve the tenant problem in North Carolina? Not in a long time. But it is a step in the right direction and once the colony plan is a demonstrated success, it will be quickly followed by others.

And what is better, private capital will take the cue as it did in California and carry it on. What California as a state can do, North Carolina can do. What private capital can do in California, private capital can do in North Carolina. Dr. Mead is now making a survey of the state to determine what it will cost to solve the entire problem of wilderness acres in California by the colonization plan. His survey covers the cost of land, the cost of reclamation and preparation, machinery, livestock associations, cold storage houses, the cost of production and distribution, and city advantages for farm communities—home comforts and conveniences, recreation, schools, churches, community houses and the like.

The fifty million dollar road bond issue will not put a road in front of every farmer's house in North Carolina or relieve the state of taxes, but it is certainly a step in the right direction. And farm colonies worked out one at a time in the six typical farm districts of the state would be a long stride toward getting men to see the opportunities that rural life offers when properly planned and executed.

There are two classes of tenants that this plan cannot help to any very great extent, sad as it may be. First those lacking the home-owning virtues. No man can be helped who is not industrious, busy and active, or who lacks thrift which is the combined effect of foresight and rigid self-denial, or who lacks sagacity, which is the ability to pick up the chain of causes and effects and to finger it link by link to the end, or who lacks integrity, which means uprightness and sobriety. The lack of any one of these virtues will preclude home ownership under any plan. But a man lacking in one or more of these virtues would be strengthened by close association with farmers that have them. Any scheme that left him to himself would certainly end in disaster.

Another important cause of tenancy is heredity. Many Southern tenants have inherited poverty and all its ills, such as illiteracy, ill-health and feeblemindedness. They are the victims of family traditions. There is not much that can be done for them except to improve the conditions under which they live. But you can furnish better opportunities for their children. The colony plan offers the best opportunity for their children, in fact the only opportunity that might in any way save them from following in the footsteps of their fathers. Left to themselves they certainly would not acquire enough moral strength to overcome the family weaknesses. But in a good environment they would be likely to start in the right direction.

The two classes do not represent the largest proportion of the tenant population of the state or the South. Nevertheless the ratio is constantly growing. Social insulation, excessive individualism, lack of property and lack of interest in the community are conditions that are fast multiplying their numbers.

The future of the state must be faced, rural life must be enriched, agriculture must be put on a business foundation, and farm coöperation made possible. And California in particular is showing the nation the way.

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UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA EXTENSION BULLETIN

THE COMMENCEMENT PROGRAM

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA PRESS
Entered as Second-Class Matter
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University of North Carolina Extension Bulletin

THE COMMENCEMENT PROGRAM
SUGGESTIONS AND HELPS AVAILABLE FOR THE SCHOOL

BY

HAROLD D. MEYER
Associate Professor of Sociology

With the Assistance of
ROY R. ANDERSON
ELIZABETH CRANFORD
JANE MOXLEY
CARRILEA SANDERS

From the Classes in Field Work of the
School of Public Welfare

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FOREWORD

The Commencement Program was prepared at the suggestion of several county superintendents of public instruction and rural school supervisors. Reduced to a sentence, this was what they said: "School commencements are in a rut; can not the Extension Division do something to make them different, really interesting and practical, and to broaden their scope?"

We asked Professor H. D. Meyer of the University faculty, knowing he had already written several practical bulletins which are being widely used in the State and Nation, to prepare such a bulletin. In doing this the author made use of the project method in one of his sociology classes at the University by allowing the members of the class to do some of the research work and collection of material. During the course of the research it was found that as far as could be determined no publication on this subject, dealing so directly with the making of the program, has ever been published in the United States.

I believe that those who study this bulletin will agree with me that *The Commencement Program* should be of great usefulness to every school which receives a copy. It is hoped that county superintendents of public instruction and rural school supervisors will see to it that each school in their county is supplied with at least one copy.

CHESTER D. SNELL, *Director,*
University Extension Division.

AIDS FOR SCHOOL COMMENCEMENTS

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INTRODUCTION

Celebrating the commencement season is a time-honored custom. The commencement program is one of our American institutions. The time calls for festivities in every community of the Nation. When the schools come to the close of a session they center the community interest in the commencement program as a climax to the work of the year. It is a great event in the life of the community. The people come together with happy hearts and sincere interest to "take stock," as it were, of the children growing about them. These children have accomplished something. As future citizens they are marching on. The whole community turns out to show loyalty and appreciation, to note progress, to discern growth, and to be stimulated for greater and better things. The occasion should be marked with the spirit of duty well done and determination for future growth.

As a custom, it has become the duty of the school officials to arrange, direct, and carry out the commencement program. These leaders are unusually busy toward the close of school; there are so many duties crowding in at the end. It is with this thought in mind that *The Commencement Program* is written. It desires to offer suggestions, plans, organization helps, sample programs, materials, and bibliographies to aid school authorities in working out the commencement program. Aids in the matter of decoration, publicity, music, plays, pageants, games, drills, folk dances, exhibits, and novelty ideas are given. Some sample programs are outlined. They do not cover all the types that may be used but are suggestive of forms and types. A county commencement program is explained in detail and the events listed.

When the call came from the Extension Division to write this bulletin I turned to the class in field work for assistance. These students are in close touch with the schools and have had experience in aiding communities along this line. They have undertaken the task with interest and it is hoped that the work may be useful to the schools.

H. D. M.

Part I

ORGANIZING FOR COMMENCEMENT

The success or failure of the commencement program will depend largely upon the organization of the forces directing it. We have often seen difficulties resulting from lack of organization. Everybody's responsibility is no one's. To illustrate: Who is to decorate the auditorium? Who is to be on hand before the program begins to see that the lights are all burning? Who shall put the water pitcher and glass on the speaker's table? Who shall tell Mary and Johnnie when to appear on the stage? We could go on and on enumerating numbers of things that need the touch of organization to make the commencement program a smoothly working affair. All those mentioned are small matters but they are necessary for the success of any occasion.

A little thought and planning on the part of those leading will mean added attractiveness to commencement programs. Not only that, but it will be the best way to distribute responsibility equally. As many people as possible should be engaged and interested in the entire program. In this way it becomes more of a community affair, as the community not only forms the audience but helps in directing the program. The tasks should of course be distributed according to the talent available.

General Plan

In almost every instance the superintendent or principal of a school is executive head of the commencement organization. Therefore, as chief executive, the community looks to him for initiative in organizing and directing the commencement season.

Frequently the superintendent or principal delegates the full authority for the commencement programs and affairs to some of the teachers. In any case there should be one person at the head clothed with authority to organize, plan, and direct the general trend of affairs.

As the commencement season is directly made for student life, it should be given ample representation in the plan of organization. While it is best to have teachers or parents as heads of committees, it is advisable to have some pupils on every committee. In this way they obtain direct representation in making and carrying out the program, and they also express the student sentiment regarding many things that come up.

Having an executive head, the next thing is the appointing of the committees. Each committee should have a chairman and from three to five members. The executive head functions through the various chairmen and they in turn communicate the plans to their committees. The committees, using their own initiative, perfect the plans. The following committees are suggested as being sufficient to carry out the program in every way.

Committees

Program Committee:

This is one of the most important of the committees. Its duty is to arrange the general program. After the general plan is adopted it assigns the different parts of the program to other committees. It is suggested that the personnel be made up of the chairmen of the various committees.

This committee should meet a month or more before the closing of school and perfect plans as rapidly as possible. It is not wise to try to have a commencement program hastily planned and executed.

Decoration Committee:

At this time of the year the building or room should be decorated for every occasion. The work of this committee is important, as the general responsive feeling on the part of the audience may be moulded by the method of decoration.

Try to make the decorating an inexpensive thing. Utilize material in the community that is in taste and pleasing.

Plan the type of decoration to be used.

Music Committee:

Have the program full of music. Music will add more to it than any one thing.

Choose this committee from those interested and gifted along this line. Insist that they put in the program the very best type of music available. Stop at nothing short of the best.

Reception and Ushers Committee:

While it is best to have a teacher in charge of this committee, the committee itself may be composed of members of the incoming senior class. Let them choose a leader as head usher. It is his duty to be everywhere to see if assistance can be rendered in any way. There should be enough ushers to place at the entrance and to assist in seating the people. They also handle the flowers and gifts for the pupils. Insist that they be on time—at least half an hour before the program begins. Let them wear their class colors.

Before the day of the program some one should drill the ushers in courteous ways of ushering. This will mean a great deal to the audience.

Publicity Committee:

There will be some advertising to do for the programs and the commencement affairs. It is not to be assumed that every one in the community knows what is going on as to place, time, and occasion. Give full publicity to these particulars.

Form this committee from such people and pupils as have shown aptitude for publicity work.

Refreshments Committee:

Sometimes there is a reception or a picnic with dinner on the grounds. If this is incorporated in the general plan of commencement, a committee should be formed to carry it out. An entertainment of this type calls for efficient organization.

Some General Hints and Helps

1. One of the first things to decide upon is the number of days needed to cover the program. A long drawn out commencement program consisting of a week of celebrating is un-

wise. It is suggested that three days be set as the maximum limit for festivities. In many instances one night is sufficient. Determine this before other plans are made.

2. A few essential things are here noted. It is always good to have a Sunday service dedicated to the school and held in the school building. Invite one of the local ministers or, if finances permit, some out-of-town minister to talk. Use the rotation system in doing this so that no denomination will be slighted. Start, say, with the largest denomination in numbers and then each year change from one to the other until all denominations in the community have had representation.

3. Many schools have some kind of festival program in the way of a play, a program of music and recitation, a field day, a picnic with dinner on the grounds, a pageant, or class-day exercises. Do not have all of these things. Choose one or two. Do not have more than two. It is probably best to allow the graduating class to make its own selection along this line.

4. Then there are the graduating exercises. These should be made the climax of the day. It is the most important event in the life of the pupils up to that time, and should have a great stimulating effect upon those coming on and also upon community development.

5. Another big factor to consider for all programs is the *time* element. By all means limit the time for every program. Try to keep within an hour and never allow it to last more than two hours. Study it and limit each number. This is *very* important.

6. At each event give the graduating class a conspicuous place. In this way it will form an incentive to those coming on. It will also be pleasing to the parents and friends of the members of the class. At the Sunday exercises and on graduation day the class should march to the stage or to reserved seats.

7. There is always a certain amount of expense attached to the general commencement program. How to meet this is sometimes a problem. A few ways are here suggested. The best plan is to have an appropriation made from the school fund by the school board. This amount should be limited. Another way is by private contributions—making a canvass of the citizens in-

terested in the school and obtaining a contribution from them. Try to ascertain what it will cost and then distribute the amount among the members of the community. Some classes start a class fund for this purpose. They make assessments or give entertainments during the year and charge a certain admission price. However, it hardly seems fair that they should have to pay for their own commencement. Another way is to charge an admission fee for the special program, the play, the festival, the pageant, or the like.

8. Where possible, try to avoid charging the community for any occasion at this time. Do your best to make everything free. This will tend to make the season one of common interest to the community.

9. Attend to printing the program well ahead of time. So often this is left to the last minute. Try to perfect the program as soon as possible and then make few changes. Be careful to have all those taking part mentioned on the program. Watch closely the spelling of names and see that none are omitted. People are very sensitive about this and the utmost care and attention are needed. If possible, put the names of teachers, school officials, and board members on the graduating program.

10. Give a general and thorough cleaning-up to all school rooms and grounds. Nothing counts for more than having the grounds and building in fine shape. Organize for keeping the place clean during the celebrations. Make the school building the cleanest place in town.

11. If there are exhibits in the building it will be well to have some one in charge of each room when people are there. Place some responsible person in general charge of the building with police authority. One never knows what may happen.

12. It would be a good idea to have all the ushers dress as nearly alike as possible. Things of this kind add to the general atmosphere of the occasion.

13. Be sure to mark clearly, by means of signs or lights, the entrances and exits of the building. Should occasion arise for the hurried exit of the entire audience these places should be conspicuous. Often disaster has come to a community through neglect of this point.

14. Try to think of every detail. Make folks feel at home. Praise the children. Boost the community. Thank those who have helped. Keep a list of things that you wish to do and try to avoid leaving out any.

15. Be sure to have drinking water supplied in the building. Also have a pitcher on the table in the auditorium. Speakers often desire to drink some water before, during, or after the speech.

16. See that the piano and other needed material are on hand. There have been times when the piano was lifted to the stage ten minutes after the program should have started. Have some one responsible for these things.

17. Have the toilets cleaned, put in order, and open to the public during programs. It will be well to have some one in charge here.

18. This point should be stressed. Do not discuss the progress of the school or school affairs and problems at the graduating exercises. It is true that the community is assembled together, but that is no reason for marring the pleasure of the graduates and the occasion in order to hold a school board meeting. Leave that for some other time and place. It may be said that it is impossible to gather the community together again in this way. This may be true. But those who are interested in the vital welfare of the school will come to a meeting for the purpose of discussing school problems. Those who do not are better left alone. Too often commencement programs have been ruined by the airing of little, petty, disagreeable school affairs at graduating exercises. It is not fair to the student, who at this time has reached a height that is worth while.

19. It is suggested that the examination period of the school be concluded before beginning the commencement festivities. If school commencements begin while the children are in the midst of examinations it is distracting and perhaps harmful to the general scholastic standing.

20. START ON TIME. If nothing else goes right in the whole program, have this part perfect. When the program is scheduled to begin at eight it certainly does not mean eight-thirty or nine o'clock. If your community is not trained to be

on time, this is a good opportunity to start. It may be a little noisy and inconvenient for awhile but once they know things are to start on time they will be on time. Make this a habit. It is one of the best trainers for children as well as adults.

21. Let the programs grow out of the daily work of the class room. Instead of the old-time recitation with "the baby being snatched from the railroad track just as the train passed by," assign some favorite poem or selection from the reader the child has been studying or a paper describing some industry in the community. Or perhaps there is some community folk tale that is interesting. In this way utilize the things the child has learned; put his education into practice; make it useful.

22. When the members of the graduating class are to read papers, encourage their writing them themselves in their own way. Most of the papers are written by teachers or some one else and the child merely mimics along. The papers should be in simple language and form suited to the child. Choose topics that are interesting to the community and pertaining to it.

23. In every audience there is the crying baby. This is a problem for each event. The parent can not come unless the child comes. The parents should be encouraged to attend and, if possible, provision should be made for the little ones. One of the teachers may volunteer to keep all the small children in one of the rooms and have a play session or allow them to sleep. When the crying begins an usher should suggest in a courteous way that the parent take the children into some other room until the crying ceases. Noise is disturbing to the program and it is best to have things as quiet as possible.

24. There is always the problem of training the children for the program containing recitations, songs, games, dances, and the like. It is not fair to put all this responsibility upon one or two teachers. Try to distribute this burden. Of course, if there are music and expression teachers in the faculty, most of the training will be left to them. Each teacher should assume some responsibility of this kind, however, and often there are talented people in the community who are eager to help.

25. Prizes for scholarship and record progress are always offered. The fewer the prizes given the better. Report cards with gold stars are preferable to cash or material prizes. One wins a prize and many lose. Too often those who lose feel that they should have won. This causes trouble. It is better to give other incentives to work and develop. If prizes are given, always praise those who did not win as much as those who did. The prize itself praises the winner.

26. Encourage the graduates to continue their education. Where possible, build up scholarships to worthy students. All during the year stress the continuating process and its value.

27. Perhaps the most important factor to consider from the standpoint of comfort to the audience is the matter of proper ventilation. This is frequently neglected entirely. Give the matter careful attention and see that instructions regarding it are carried out. With from one to five hundred people in one room it is easy to see the importance of adequate ventilation.

28. When there is an out-of-town speaker, do not place him at the end of the program. Remember that it costs something to get him there and he does not like to speak after every one is tired. Where there is a speaker it is best not to have too much added to the rest of the program.

29. Plan ahead of time for the class invitations. Try to give this work to some home printery or one near-by. Beware of the man who comes early in the year and attempts to secure a big order with big promises. Find out what you are getting and arrange to have the invitations on hand at least a month before commencement. Often invitations come only a week ahead of time and it is then too late to make any change in case they are unsatisfactory.

30. It would be a good plan to have researved seats for relatives of graduates. If not, the best seats are often taken by people not directly interested in the members of the class.

31. It is suggested that no flowers be delivered to those on the stage. It is all right to have the members of the class carry flowers but the wholesale giving of them is embarrassing, as some pupils receive many more than others do.

32. It is advisable also to make some regulation regarding clothes. Do not allow the graduates to spend large sums for commencement dresses and suits. Suggest a simple style and inexpensive material, such as organdies or voiles. Stress the wearing of white. The boys should wear dark suits and their shirts and ties should be of the same color. This will give unity of appearance.

33. While the program is going on do not allow people to come and go. As soon as a number starts the ushers should close the doors. After it is over those who have come during that time should be seated and any one may leave. This will mean much to a smoothly running and enjoyable program.

Part II

SUGGESTIONS FOR THE PROGRAM

Publicity

(Note. Materials and bibliographies for each of these topics will be found in Part V).

An important factor to be considered in connection with a commencement program is the kind and amount of publicity to be given to it. As a rule, most parents know that a program is to be given by the school. But it must be remembered that there are a number of other people in the community who are interested in the school and would like to attend one or more of the programs. Publicity becomes a means of informing the public as to the work that the school accomplished during the year, and the features of commencement week. The following suggestions may be of use in advertising the features for commencement:

1. It would be a good plan to have a series of news articles in the local paper beginning at least two weeks before the first event. State clearly the general plan for commencement and outline the type of program or programs to be given. This first announcement should be followed by an editorial in which some of the most outstanding features of the year's work are reviewed, the idea being to stress the fact that the commencement program is to be an opportunity for the public to see some of the results of the work.

2. During commencement week use should be made of the news column of the local paper to announce the program, the time, and other items of importance.

3. Attractive posters may be worked out by the pupils and used in conspicuous places in the community.

4. If funds are available, handbills may be distributed. Be sure that the date of each program is on the different forms used.

5. Other means that have been found effective include: Bulletin boards, paid advertisements in newspapers, pennants,

placards for display on automobiles, tags, slides in picture shows, pulpit notices, and display of special exhibits.

Music

Music in the daily life of the public school is comparatively new and its importance not yet fully realized. But what would a commencement program be without it? It not only has a very good and definite effect on a group of people but it is one thing in which all may take part.

There are many different types of music to be used in commencement programs. Patriotic or familiar songs may be used as all the people may take part in singing these. The march for the students who take part in the exercises may be played by the school orchestra, if there is one. Then interspersed through the program are the choruses, quartets, solos, and instrumental selections. The respective talents of all the students should be closely inspected and each one should be in some number on the program if possible.

Too ambitious a musical program should not be undertaken. Better a simple song well done than an elaborate one poorly done.

If the commencement plans include a baccalaureate sermon, special music should be arranged by the church choir as its contribution to the graduating class. The choruses for the choir may be obtained from any music publishers, a large list of whom is given in Part V of this bulletin. Silver, Burdett and Company, and Wm. A. Pond and Company, carry very popular church music.

Decoration

One of the most necessary points to be considered in planning the commencement program is the question of decoration. In the southern states this is particularly easy. At all times of the year something green is available. In the spring, which is the season in which most commencement programs are held, a great many flowers and shrubs are to be found.

Pines and evergreens may be used as the foundation for the decoration. The platform may be banked with them and the

green relieved by bouquets of daisies, rambler roses, or any other flower abundant at the time. These flowers may be put in jugs, pails, or buckets, the bases of which may be covered with greens. A large bunch of flowers at each end of the platform is very pretty and effective. Another way, and one that is rather uncommon, is to cut the word "Welcome" or the class numerals out of cardboard, cover with flowers, and suspend over the platform.

Flags may be used to advantage and form both a pretty and simple method. Crepe paper is very effective but if used in large quantities is rather expensive. In decorating booths for exhibits crepe paper is almost necessary. The Dennison Company of New York City will send, for a nominal sum, an illustrated booklet showing booths, charts for pageants, tables, etc., decorated for all occasions. If told what idea is to be carried out, they will send the necessary paper and suggestions for decorations. B. Shackman, also of New York City, is another decorating firm. Such magazines as *The Ladies' Home Journal, The Woman's Home Companion, Pictorial Review,* and a number of others have departments devoted to ideas for parties, festivals, and affairs which make use of novel decorations, and many good suggestions may be obtained.

If the class rooms are to contain class exhibits, the same decorations may be used as in the assembly hall. Pine and evergreens and the plants which belong in the class room may be utilized. The blackboards should be either spotlessly clean or decorated by the class artists.

During the commencement period, whether of one day or several days, monitors should be appointed to see that the grounds and rooms are kept clean and free from all papers and trash. Nothing will so detract from a prettily decorated school house as untidy grounds and rooms.

When the program for the graduating class includes a baccalaureate sermon and it is to be held in a church, the church should have special decorations. An abundance of greens and fresh flowers should be used to bank the front of the church and altar or platform, as the case may be. A portion of the front of the church should be reserved for the class and an effective way

of doing this is to rope off the reserved section by means of daisy chains. The graduating class should form in line outside and enter in a formal way.

Plays

(Note: A number of these suggestions and the bibliography were taken from *Play Productions for Amateurs* by F. H. Koch. If more detailed instructions are desired, write to the University Extension Division, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N. C.)

An enjoyable feature of the average high school commencement is the annual play. It should be among the first of the commencement features so that other activities may not interfere with the last few rehearsals. The school play is an effective means of arousing the interest of the community. Local talent is always a drawing card. Only school children should take part in the play.

The following are a few suggestions that will help produce a play that will be a credit to the school and will also be instrumental in bringing the school and community closer together.

First of all there should be some one who can direct and coach the play. The director should see to the organization of the various committees. On him falls also the duty of selecting the cast. This should not be done in a haphazard way but only after a careful study of the play and a series of tryouts in which a number are allowed to read the parts. The ones best suited for the parts should be selected regardless of popularity in other phases of school life. The director should attend all rehearsals with a prompter as an assistant. It is not wise to have more than one director, for there is nothing so disconcerting to the actors as having stage business constantly changed. The director must have a picture of the play as a finished product and strive to make each character a real, live, natural person.

Besides the director there must be a group of helpers to put across the play successfully. The director of stagecraft should see to the designing of scenery and working out of stage effects. It is also his duty to change the scenery between acts.

The director of lighting is responsible for all lighting effects, constructing such fixtures as are necessary to produce lighting,

fires, etc. It is important to have a good electrician for this position, as the desired atmosphere or tone of the play often depends upon the lighting.

Another essential officer is the director of properties. He is responsible for collecting and arranging the stage properties. The properties should be used in several rehearsals so that the actors may become accustomed to them.

The director of make-up and costumes must have some knowledge of the use of grease paint for character make-up. The make-up should be tried for several nights with the costumes and proper lighting so that the best results may be obtained. The costumes should be designed with the idea of harmony of colors in mind. For this reason it is best to have one person plan the costumes.

Music before the play and during intermissions will add much to the success of the performance.

It is necessary to select a capable business manager to look after the advertising, sale of tickets, rental of properties, and any other expenses connected with the production of the play.

The selection of the play also falls to the duty of the director. He should take care to select something simple enough to produce without expert training. Most high school pupils are not experienced enough to undertake a heavy production that requires very strong character work. Simple comedies always take better and are much easier to produce. If the expense of production is to be limited, consideration should be given to royalties, scenery, and costumes. If the play is a long one, it should be full of spice and pep so as to hold the interest of the audience throughout. Several one-act plays are often better than the longer plays. They offer variety as well as opportunity for a larger number to take part.

Speeches, Orations, and Essays

The speeches, orations, and essays are usually the most uninteresting part of the program. This is because they are generally memorized selections which do not have any particular interest for the average audience. The "ready-made" commencement speeches are flowery and oratorical but lack the local touch that people enjoy. It is possible to eliminate this tiresome

feature by having the speakers choose some subject of local or national interest. They have usually won their places on the program as an honor and thus the audience looks to them for something really worth while. It wants to see some original work, something to justify the place of honor. It is fitting, therefore, that the prospective commencement speaker select a subject in which his community is interested, or some problem in which it should be interested, and then write his own speech.

Some suggested subjects for these original papers and speeches are:

The Founding and Growth of our Town.
The Possibility of the future Growth of our Town.
The Country-Town Movement.
Our City Government and how it may be Improved.
"Lantern Bearers" from our School.
The Type of Citizen our Town Produces.
The Type of Citizen we wish to Become.

Topics for orations are:

American Ideals.
Knighthood of To-day.
Service to my Country.
Woodrow Wilson.
Womanhood of To-day.
World Peace.

In case prepared selections are preferred to the original speeches, a list of such will be found in the bibliography.

Pageants

"Pageants are simple or elaborate presentations of historical, mythical, or allegorical subjects."

Pageants have a rightful place in school festivals since they are educational and a community can better express itself in this way. A school often prefers a pageant to any other form of theatricals as it usually portrays events or characters of general interest to the community.

Pageants may be given either indoors or outdoors, but the latter is preferable.

If possible, the setting should be laid in the state or community in which the pageant is given.

Do not buy expensive costumes. Utilize the materials already existing in the homes of the community. Many interesting costumes may be found in attics and old trunks. It is surprising to see what may be gathered together in this way. Whenever possible, the pupils should make their own costumes.

The materials which have been found most useful and least expensive are cheese cloth, silkoline, muslin, cambric, galatea, and sateen.

Crepe and tissue paper with wire and paste may be substituted for more expensive material. Crepe and tissue paper hats, dresses, flowers, and ribbons look more natural than if made of more permanent material. Crepe paper used with tin is invaluable for making armored head and body gear. Wings for fairies, elves, butterflies, and the like, may also be made of this material. However, if these are to be used frequently wired crinoline or tarlatan will be found more durable.

Use cotton batting for fur. Sheet tin may be used for armor. Gold and silver tin foil are successfully employed in making jewelry.

When large quantities of cloth or other material are needed it is much cheaper to buy them wholesale.

Use as many bright colors as possible.

There should be committees appointed to take charge of certain parts of the pageant:

1. The first committee is that on scenarios. The pageant may be written by local talent.

2. The next committee should be on membership.

3. A third committee should look after the finances.

4. A committee on location should be selected. The director of the pageant should be chairman of this committee.

5. A committee on properties will have charge of the costumes, powders, paints, etc.

6. The last committee, that on music, may be used to good advantage. Plenty of good music adds delight to the performance.

The kindergarten can dramatize little scenes from the *Mother Goose* rimes. As a sequel to this, the primary and elementary grades may dramatize such fairy stories as *Cinderella, Sleeping Beauty, Alice in Wonderland,* and others. Often the high school has talent enough to present scenes from various novels, such as *A Tale of Two Cities,* or scenes from plays of Shakespeare.

Pageants have grown to be one of the best ways to have the school, as a whole, take part in the commencement program.

Games, Drills, and Folk Dances

An innovation in the regular program is the playing of games, certain formal drills, or folk dances. It would not be amiss to include some of these events in any program. Scattering them here and there will add color to many situations. To put a simple play game by the pupils of the primary grades into the heart of the program will add interest. A drill, a folk dance or two will also help.

It is best, however, to have a single program, taking one afternoon or evening for games, drills, and folk dances. This event will be of community interest and will involve the participation of many pupils. This is one of its best features. Whenever it is possible to engage a large number of students in the events community interest is assured. An attractive program is possible with games, drills, and folk dances. Let each grade participate in some way. Specialize the primary grades in games, the elementary grades in folk dances, and the high school in formal drills and folk dances. The program should consist of two or three events from every class. Place the responsibility for the number of events on the grade teacher and insist that each be perfected as nearly as possible.

Suggest some form of costume for each number if only in dresses and suits of the same style and color. Do not allow the pupils to spend very much for costumes. Crepe paper and old cloth can be easily made into costumes. Color will add to the event and will be pleasing from every standpoint.

If physical education is taught in the school that department should be responsible for things of this kind. Of course, the other members of the faculty should coöperate fully.

There are a number of good books, bulletins, and leaflets available as aids in preparing this type of program. They are listed in the bibliography. There are also many helps that may be obtained without charge.

Field Day Events

It will be interesting to have an all-day picnic with dinner on the grounds and a regular field day of events as the main part of the program. The games, drills, and folk dances may constitute a part of this program. The events may be contests between grades of the same school or a competitive contest between a number of schools. In any case the preliminaries should take place beforehand, leaving only the final contests for field day. If this is not done, the program will be too long and monotonous.

Start the field day plans at least two months ahead of time so that the contestants may have time for practice and getting into form. Constant practice in perfecting the events is fundamental for the success of the program. It also tends to have the child create a habit for physical development.

Make all plans for the day well in advance. Look after such things as judges, materials, place of contest, positions of different contests on the lay-out, field marshals, time keepers, starters, record keepers, trainers, contestants, and events. Stores and homes of the community will furnish small, inexpensive prizes for the events.

There are a number of materials that seem indispensable to a field day. Some of these are: Tape measure, cord, marker, stop watches, pistol and blank cartridges, balls, potatoes, sacks, jumping standard, pole vaulting standard, hurdles, line marker, and many other things. It will not be expensive to obtain all this equipment and it is suggested that it be taken care of for future use.

A list of some of the events will be given. Use originality in making out the program. It is not necessary for all the events listed to be incorporated into the program. Do not make the events too long.

Races: 100-yard dash; 50-yard dash; hurdle; relays.

Jumping events: Standing broad jump; standing high jump; running broad jump; running high jump; hurdle jumping; pole vaulting.

Novelty Events: Potato race; sack race; egg race; three-legged race; backward-on-all-fours race; dressing race; clown stunts, etc.

Relays: General open relay form of teams; double relay; obstacle relay; post relay; over-and-under-with-ball relay; handkerchief relay; etc.

Other events: Chinning the pole; balancing; dodge ball; basketball; volley ball; hand ball; horseshoe throwing; bean bags; distance throwing; disk throwing; stunts; games; drills; and folk dances.

From this list one should be able to make up a very attractive program.

GENERAL FORM OF PROGRAM FOR THE DAY

Start at about 10:30 a. m. That will give everybody time to assemble. Have a short, formal program out of doors, telling about the meet and announcing the events for the day and the order in which they come. Some one should make a short inspirational talk to the folks and there should be a few community songs.

Begin the field events at about 11:30 a. m. and let them run until 1:00 p. m. From 1:00 p. m. to 2:00 p. m. serve dinner. While this is being spread a committee of pupils may show the folks the school exhibits or entertain them by boosting the school in short talks.

The afternoon program should start at 2:00 p. m. The games, drills, and folk dances should come then. Have some games that all may play and make it a community get-together.

If there is time, a baseball game between picked teams always creates a lot of amusement. Try to use this in the program, say from 4:00 p. m. to 5:50 p. m. It is not necessary to play the full nine innings.

This will make a day full of wholesome activity and one in which the community takes part. There is nothing that contributes more to the development of community spirit than gatherings of this kind.

Exhibits

In many schools an effort is made to have the work of the pupils on display during commencement week. This is a splendid idea and should be encouraged more and more by a larger number of our schools. Parents like to see the results that have been accomplished during the year, and students are encouraged to do better work in order to make a good showing in competition with other pupils. The following suggestions may be of value in handling this part of the program.

1. If the exhibits are to take a prominent place on the commencement program it would be well to appoint early in the year a committee to have general oversight and control relative to the type and amount of materials to be exhibited.

2. Exhibits may be divided according to grade, class, or department.

3. All exhibits should be labeled with the name of pupil, grade, and date in plain lettering.

4. For primary exhibits such material as hand work, sand tables, first written work, and pictures will be found useful.

5. For higher grades, manual training, domestic science, music, art, physical education, chart, scrap book, map, and civic project exhibits will be suitable.

6. Plan to show specimens of the work done at the beginning of the course as compared with that of the latter part.

7. See to it that all exhibits are guarded. If there are a large number of exhibits some person should be placed in charge. Put "Do not Handle" signs about.

8. Stress the importance of attractive methods of arranging all exhibits. Pay attention to light, color, size, grouping, and type of lettering used in labeling materials.

9. Use all available space in the room. If blackboards are of slate, cover them with burlap and place exhibits on it.

10. Grant children the privilege of having their contributions after exhibits are over.

Novelty Suggestions

There is no reason for the commencement program to be the "same old thing"—a few songs, a few speeches, and then the presentation of diplomas. Why not introduce some new feature into the exercises?

Novelties are more for the class night, but commencement night may be incorporated into class night.

A few novel features of class night are:

A *class paper* written in the form of a newspaper with each one in the class responsible for a certain department. Poetry, editorials, current events should all have a place, and this plan would give opportunity for the salutatory and valedictory.

A *class play* including all members of the class as they will be in the future. This furnishes opportunity for speeches, songs, and any other novelties the class may have.

Class minstrels carried through in a proper way will be entertaining and enjoyable.

A *class funeral* is probably the most unusual and the most enjoyable of all novelties. The best description and details of this plan are given in *The Commencement Manual,* by Edith Painton, which is listed in the bibliography. Miss Painton gives many more features than have been listed with a detailed description of some.

It is an easy matter to introduce unusual stunts when books giving full descriptions can be obtained, and it would add zest to the commencement exercises if this were done. Graduating time should and could be a community social affair and an effort should be made to make it as interesting and enjoyable as possible.

Part III

SOME SUGGESTED TYPES OF PROGRAMS

Making a balanced program is a difficult task. There are many types and many variations; there is much to put in and much to leave out. A few samples of programs, each different in type and content, are listed here. They are not all the types that may be given. They are designed merely to assist in forming the special type that may be desired.

The graduating class should be the unit around which the program is planned. Where possible, every member should take part. If the class is large, let them select representatives for the program. Give them a prominent place and let them realize that the occasion is in their honor.

If there is a speaker from out of town his speech should come well toward the first of the program. His message may be considered by the class and audience as the main part of the program. Why leave this message to the end when the program is unusually long? If it is merely a formal program it is all right to place the speaker at any point, as the length is not generally a consideration.

If the program is full of essays, speeches, and songs from the school children, do not invite a speaker for the occasion. A splendid program may be made up entirely of talent among the pupils, and one of this type will be thoroughly enjoyed by the community.

Samples of Programs

The programs given are for the closing exercises only. Other programs may be modeled after them.

Sample I. Formal program. Single sheet of paper.

Name of School

Commencement Exercises.

March
Prayer
Song
Salutatory
Essay
Class Prophecy

Song
Address
Song
Valedictory
Delivery of Diplomas
Benediction

This is the general and easiest form. It does not contain any frills or extras. It is a formal program given in a formal way. It is suggested that originality and variety be put into the program. Below are some samples of programs that are unusual and interesting. One objection to all of them is the time limit. It is difficult to limit time after you proceed beyond the formal program.

Sample II. Printed as a four-page leaflet.

First Page

Commencement Exercises
Name of School
Place, Date, Time

Second Page

Class Roll
Class Motto
Class Colors

Third Page

Program

Processional
Invocation
Salutatory
Song or Instrumental Music
Essay
Essay
Essay
Song or Instrumental Music
Valedictory
Presentation of Diplomas
Class Song
Benediction

Fourth Page

Names of Members of Faculty
Names of Members of School Board

Sample III. Printed as a four-page leaflet.

Page 1

Commencement Exercises
Name of School
Name of Town and State
Date, Place of Meeting, Time

Pages 2 and 3

Program

March
Song—Chorus
Essay of Welcome
Essay
Recitation.
Musical Numbers—Piano
Address
Valedictory
Presentation of Diplomas
Song—Chorus
March

Class Motto, Class Colors, Class Flower

Page 4

Graduates
School Committee

Sample IV. Printed on four-page leaflet.

Page 1

Closing Exercises
Name of School
Place of Meeting, Time, Date
School Committee
Members of Faculty

Page 2

Program

Opening Song
Invocation
Remarks by Principal
Essay
Song
Play (One Act)
Poem
Presentation of Diplomas
Valedictory
Song

Page 3

List of Graduates
Class Colors, Class Motto

Page 4

Blank

Sample V. Printed on four-page leaflet.

Page 1

Graduating Exercises
of the
Name of School
Place, Date, Time.

Pages 2 and 3

Program

(This program is made up of a series of short numbers.)

1. Song—Graduating Class
2. Essay
3. Essay
4. Essay
5. Song—School
6. Recitation
7. Piano Selection
8. Song—Grade
9. Recitation
10. Essay
11. Poem
12. Song—School
13. Presentation of Diplomas
14. Valedictory
15. Closing Song

Page 4

Names of Graduates
Words of the songs that are to be used

Sample VI. Printed on a four-page leaflet.

Page 1

Closing and Field Day Exercises
Names of Schools
School Committee
Time, Place and Date

Pages 2 and 3

Program

Part I.—10:00 A. M.

Flag Raising Exercises
Music
Address
Solo
Presentation of Diplomas
Valedictory
Song
Picnic Luncheon

Part II.—1:30 P. M.

FIELD DAY EXERCISES

Walter Camp's Exercises—All Pupils
Singing Games and Folk Dances

Special Features
- Long Wand Drill—Special Pupils
- Folk Dance—Special Pupils
- Gymnastic Stunts—Special Pupils

Field Events
- 75-yard Dash—Boys
- 50-yard Dash—Girls
- Pole Vault—Boys
- Chinning the Bar—Boys
- High Jump—Boys
- Broad Jump—Girls
- Egg Race—Boys and Girls
- Sack Race—Boys and Girls
- Tug-of-War—All Pupils

Baseball Game—Picked Teams

Page 4

List of Graduates
Class Colors, Motto, Flower
Some attractive quotation

Sample VII. Printed on a four-page leaflet.

Page 1

Closing Exercises
Name of School
Time, Place and Date
Teachers

Page 2

Program

Song of Welcome
Invocation
Welcome Speech
Piano Selection
Vocal Solo
Essay
Recitation.
Address
Presentation of Diplomas
Class Song

Page 3

List of Graduates
School Committee
Some Quotation

Page 4

Some of the School's Ideals

Part IV

THE COUNTY COMMENCEMENT

The county-commencement plan has become one of the most distinctive features of county school work in North Carolina. Since 1910 the plan has been adopted by a large number of counties in the State. Very often the smaller schools of a county find it difficult to have an elaborate program on account of the expense, which is usually heavy, but by combining efforts with other schools the expense is reduced and at the same time more worth-while results are accomplished. Often the question of transportation is a big problem to consider when working out a program, and in counties where there are very few good roads this factor should receive due attention.

The county commencement is but one expression of the general movement now going on in our county schools toward making the county the real unit in educational effort and achievement. The plan is growing and promises to become of even greater significance in the promotion of school work in North Carolina.

The following is a general summary of the North Carolina plan for working out the program for the group center and the county commencement program. More information may be obtained from the State Department of Education, Raleigh.

1. The county superintendent, with the assistance of the county supervisor and principals, divides the schools of the county into a number of groups. One school in each group is designated as a group center.

2. At the beginning of school all teachers and principals in each group meet at the group center for general instructions as to the year's work and to discuss plans for the group center commencement which is to be given at the close of the school year. A committee is appointed to work out plans for the program. Since there are a number of requirements common to all schools of the county, the committee has to take these into consideration in its work.

3. Contests and examinations are held in each school a few days before the close of the year. The winners are designated to represent the school at the group center commencement which is held a few days later at the group center.

4. Winners from each school meet at the group center to compete with winners from other schools of the group. This is an all-day program and should be carefully planned by the committee in charge.

5. Immediately after the group center commencement the names of the winners are sent to the chairman of the county commencement program. The county committee then makes out the final program for the county commencement.

6. The county committee is appointed early in the year and determines the general rules and regulations to be followed in the group center and the county commencement program.

7. The following is a sample of a group center program and a county commencement program submitted by Miss Ann Holdford, Rural School Supervisor in Wake County, North Carolina.

SUGGESTED PROGRAM

for

GROUP CENTER COMMENCEMENT

At .....

10:00 a. m. Contest on Primary Subject-Matter.

10:00 a. m. Contest on Grammar Grade Subject-Matter.

11:00 a. m. (Public Meeting).
Primary Story Telling Contest.
Seventh Grade Recitation Contest.
Seventh Grade Declamation Contest.
Music Contest.
Announcement of Winners.

12:30 p. m. Picnic Dinner.

1:30 p. m. Athletic Contests.
Primary Grades.
Running Broad Jump—Grammar Grade Boys.
Running Broad Jump—Grammar Grade Girls.
Running Broad Jump—High School Boys.
Running Broad Jump—High School Girls.
Running Broad Jump—Grammar Grade Boys.
Running High Jump—High School Boys.
Running High Jump—High School Girls.

Pole Vaulting—High School Boys.
Bar-chinning Contest—High School Boys.
Bar-chinning Contest—High School Girls.
Baseball Distance Throw—Grammar Grade Boys.
Baseball Distance Throw—High School Girls.
Ball-throwing Contest for Accuracy in Placing Ball—High School Boys.
Shot Put—High School Boys.
Basket Ball Distance Throw—Grammar Grade Girls.
Tug-of-War—Grammar School Boys.
Tug-of-War—High School Boys.
Tug-of-War—High School Girls.
Potato Race—Grammar Grade Boys.
Potato Race—Grammar Grade Girls.
Potato Race—High School Girls.
100-yard Dash—Grammar Grade Boys.
100-yard Dash—High School Boys.
50-yard Dash—Grammar Grade Girls.
50-yard Dash—High School Girls.
220-yard Dash—High School Boys.
500-yard Relay Race—Grammar Grade Boys.
500-yard Relay Race—Grammar Grade Girls.
Flag Relay Race—High School Boys.
Flag Relay Race—High School Girls.
One-Mile Relay Race—High School Boys.

PROGRAM

WAKE COUNTY COMMENCEMENT

Raleigh, N. C.

Saturday, April 15, 1922

Primary Subject-Matter Contest.

Sunday School Rooms, Basement, First Baptist Church

9:30 a. m. First Grade Phonics.
9:30 a. m. First Grade Reading.
9:30 a. m. Second Grade Reading.
9:30 a. m. Third Grade Language.

Grammar Grade Subject-Matter Contests.

Raleigh High School Building, Second Floor.

9:30 a. m. Fourth Grade Arithmetic.
9:30 a. m. Fifth Grade Language.
9:30 a. m. Sixth Grade Letter Writing.
9:30 a. m. Spelling.

Visitors will not be admitted to the above contests.

The public is cordially invited to all the contests below.

11:00 a. m. Primary Story-Telling Contests, Sunday School Auditorium, First Baptist Church.

11:00 a. m. Seventh Grade Recitation Contest, Sunday School Auditorium, First Presbyterian Church.

11:00 a. m. Seventh Grade Declamation Contest, Christ Church Parish House (Edenton Street entrance).

11:00 a. m. Elementary and High School Music Contest, Meredith College Auditorium.

10:00 a. m.-4:00 p. m. School Exhibits, Auditorium Woman's Club, Hillsboro Street.

12:30 p. m. Picnic Dinner, Nash Square.

1:15 p. m. All pupils in primary games and athletic contests assemble their "Group Center" banners in Nash Square. Contestants will go in trucks or street cars to State College Athletic Field.

1:45 p. m. Riddick Athletic Field, State College.
Primary Games.
Athletic Contests for Grammar Grade and High School Boys and Girls.

Below is another type of a county commencement program used in Orange County, North Carolina.

10:00-11:00—Parade.

11:00-12:00—At Court House.

(a) Song—Battle Hymn of the Republic.
(b) Prayer.
(c) Song—America.
(d) Speaking.

12:00- 1:30—Dinner.

1:30- 3:00—Athletic Contests:

(1) Boys under 12 years—60-yard relay.
(2) Boys under 15 years—60-yard relay.
(3) Boys over 15 years—100-yard relay.
(4) Girls under 14—50-yard relay.
(5) Girls over 14—80-yard relay.
(6) Boys under 15—60-yard dash.
(7) Boys over 15—100-yard dash.
(8) Girls under 14—50-yard dash.
(9) Girls over 14—80-yard dash.

All ages referred to above must be as of September 1, 1922.

All relay teams shall consist of four members coming from the same school.

Literary contests:

(1) Spelling contests, Grades 4 and 5.
(2) Spelling contests, Grades 6 and 7.
(3) Spelling contests, Grades 8 to 11.
(4) Story telling, Grades 1, 2, and 3.
(5) Singing contest, (including all schools having three teachers or less).
(6) Singing contest, (all schools having four or more teachers).
(7) Declamation contest, Boys, grades 4-7.
(8) Declamation contest, Boys, grades 8-11.
(9) Recitation contest, Girls, grades 4-7.
(10) Recitation contest, Girls, grades 8-11.

Part V

MATERIALS AND BIBLIOGRAPHY

There are two books which should be in every school library, namely, *The Commencement Manual*, by Edith F. A. U. Painton (T. S. Denison and Co., Chicago, Ill.), and *Commencement Parts,* by Harry Cassell Devis (Hinds, Hayden and Eldridge, New York City).

The Commencement Manual gives both salutatories and valedictories in the conventional, novel, and parody forms. It has all possible ideas for commencement exercises: Class histories and prophecies, specialties in the class colors, flowers, yells, drills, wills, grumblers, songs, cartoons, poems, mottoes, and plays. There are not only suggestions for the baccalaureate sermon, but whole sermons. It devotes several pages to an outline of novel programs for commencement and gives entire poems, songs, features, plays, and speeches. There is nothing for the overworked teacher to do but coach the class in whatever the program is to contain. This book is invaluable for the commencement exercises.

The other book, *Commencement Parts,* deals with the orator and the oration. It includes speeches of different lengths on many subjects, as, for instance, class-day speeches and exercises, compositions and essays, after-dinner speeches, speeches for national holidays, etc. There are examples of occasional addresses, such as chapel addresses, speeches before Y. M. C. A. groups, dedication speeches, and many other types. This book is not only of value to a graduating class but to teachers, principals, business men, and others who may be called upon to make speeches and addresses on short notice and many occasions.

Music

COMMUNITY SERVICE, INC., No. 1 Madison Ave., New York City. (For words for songs).

THE DITSON COMMUNITY CHORUS COLLECTION. Oliver Ditson Co., 178 Tremont St., Boston, Mass.

SELECTED CHORUSES FOR SCHOOL OR PATRIOTIC USE. G. Schirmer, 3 E. 43rd St., New York City. Some songs under this list are:

No.	*Title*	*Composer*	*Price*
28	Commencement March	H. N. Bartlett	15 cents
70	Last Day of School	L. Bordese	09 "
432	Vale (Commencement Song)	Barnby-Brewer	25 "
1396	Ode for Commencement Day	H. W. Parker	25 "

MUSIC AND SUPPLEMENTARY MUSIC. Silver, Burdett and Co., 126 Fifth Ave., New York City. (For elementary and higher grades).

THE BEACON SERIES OF VOCAL SELECTIONS FOR SCHOOLS, CLASSES AND CHORUSES. Silver, Burdett and Co. Price from $3.00-$6.00 for 100 copies.

PART SONGS FOR MIXED VOICES. Oliver Ditson Co., 178 Tremont St., Boston, Mass. New Series No. II. Price from 6-16 cents a copy.

SECULAR PART SONGS (MIXED VOICES). White and Smith, New York City. From 6-16 cents per copy.

OPERAS, OPERETTES, AND CANTATAS. C. C. Birchard and Co., 221 Columbus Ave., Boston, Mass.

SECULAR QUARTETS AND CHORUSES (MIXED VOICES). J. S. Featris Co., Chicago, Ill. From 6-16 cents a copy.

LIST OF MUSIC PUBLISHERS

C. C. Birchard and Co., 221 Columbus Ave., Boston, Mass.
Oliver Ditson Co., 178 Tremont St., Boston, Mass.
J. S. Fearis Co., Chicago, Ill.
Leo Feist, New York City.
Fillmore Music House, Cincinnati, Ohio.
Carl Fischer, New York City.
J. Fischer and Brother, New York City.
Gamble Hinged Music Co., Chicago, Ill.
H. W. Gray and Co., New York City.
Hinds, Hayden and Eldridge, 11-15 Union Square, W., New York City.
The Jennings Co., Cincinnati, Ohio.
McKinley Music Co., Chicago, Ill.
Novello, Ewer and Co., New York City.
J. A. Parks Co., York, Nebraska.
Wm. A. Pond and Co., 18 W. 37th St., New York City.
Theodore Presser Co., Philadelphia, Pa.
G. Schirmer, Inc., 3 E. 43rd St., New York City.
Arthur P. Schmidt Co., 120 Boylston St., Boston, Mass.
Silver, Burdett and Co., 126 Fifth Ave., New York City.
Clayton F. Summy, 64 E. Van Buren St., Chicago, Ill.
White and Smith, New York City.
Willis Music Co., 137 W. 47th St., Cincinnati, Ohio.

Pageants

AMERICAN FESTIVALS FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS. Barnum, M. D. S. French Co., 28 W. 38th St., New York City.

PAGEANTS AND PAGEANTRY. Bates, E. W. Ginn and Company, 15 Ashburton Place, New York City.

COMMUNITY DRAMA AND PAGEANTRY. Beegle, M. P. Yale University Press, New Haven, Conn.

FESTIVALS AND PLAYS IN SCHOOL AND ELSEWHERE. Chubb, P. Harper Brothers, New York City.

A HANDBOOK OF AMERICAN PAGEANTRY. Deval, R. Deval Publishing Co., Taunton, Mass.

HOW TO PRODUCE CHILDREN'S PLAYS. MacKay, C. D. Henry Holt and Co., 19 W. 44th St., New York City.

A MEMORIAL DAY PAGEANT. MacKay, C. D. Harper Brothers, New York City.

COSTUMES AND SCENERY FOR AMATEURS. MacKay, C. D. Henry Holt and Co., 19 W. 44th St., New York City.

PATRIOTIC PLAYS AND PAGEANTS. MacKay, C. D. Henry Holt and Co., New York City.

COMMUNITY CENTER ACTIVITIES. Parry, C. Russell Sage Foundation, 130 E. 22d St., New York City.

Plays Suitable for Commencement

(Selected from *Plays for Amateurs*, University of North Carolina Record, Extension Series No. 36.)

WHEN LOVE IS YOUNG—Marjorie Benton Cooke (in Dramatic Episodes). An artificial but very amusing comedy of two mothers who pretend to oppose their children's love affair in order to accomplish a happy ending. 1 man, 3 women. Setting: an interior. Dramatic Publishing Co., $1.25.

Volume includes A Court Comedy, Manners and Modes, The Confessional, The Child in the House, The Lion and the Lady, Success, Lady Betty's Burglar, A Dinner—with Complications, and Reform.

A FAN AND TWO CANDLESTICKS—Mary MacMillan (in Short plays). Charming and picturesque little poetic romance. Requires grace and simplicity in acting. 2 men, 1 woman. Colonial costumes. Simple but artistic interior setting. Stewart. $1.50.

Volume includes The Shadowed Star, The Rose, The Ring, Luck? Entr' Acte, A Woman's a Woman for A' That, A Modern Masque, The Futurists, and The Gate of Wishes.

THE CLANCY KIDS—Thacher H. Guild. A very funny easy play suited to school production. 2 acts. 18 women or girls. Setting: an exterior setting, representing two adjacent back-yards with a low fence between. Baker. 15c.

THE LAND OF HEART'S DESIRE—William Butler Yeats. A beautiful little fairy-lore play, Irish. Especially recommended to schools. 3 men, 3 women. Simple interior setting. Baker, and French. 15c. Royalty to French.

THE "LITTLE WOMEN" PLAY—Louise M. Alcott (adapted from the book by Elizabeth L. Gould). An excellent play for younger actors—the presentation of Miss Alcott's well known characters. 2 acts. 2 men, 6 women. Costumes of the Civil War period. One simple interior setting. Little, Brown. 75c.

THE ARROW-MAKER'S DAUGHTER—Grace E. Smith and Gertrude Knevels (adapted from Longfellow's Hiawatha). A play for Camp-fire girls, not difficult. Effective with music and dancing. 2 acts, 13 parts to be taken by boys or girls, as many other Indians as desired. Indian costumes. Setting: best adapted to out-of-doors. French. 25c.

THE COMEDY OF ERRORS—William Shakespeare (the Ben Greet edition with full and valuable stage directions). Especially recommended. 3 acts. 11 men, 5 women, attendants. Costumes of the time. One setting may be used throughout, a street scene. Doubleday, Page. $1.50.

Also published in 5 acts. Baker. 15c.

COMUS—John Milton (arranged for school performance by Lucy Chater). A masque with music and dancing, giving an opportunity for an exceptionally beautiful entertainment. 3 scenes. 6 men, 3 women, attendants. Special costumes. 1 interior, 2 exterior settings which may be simplified. Adapted to out-of-doors. Baker. 25c.

COUSIN KATE—Hubert Henry Davies. A lively comedy of English life, easy and popular. 3 acts. 3 men, 4 women. Settings: 2 easy interiors. Baker. 50c. Royalty $50.00.

THE ARRIVAL OF KITTY—Norman Lee Swartout. A very funny and easy comedy of no special literary value but popular and amusing. 3 acts. 5 men, 4 women. Baker. 50c. Royalty $10.00.

AS YOU LIKE IT—William Shakespeare (the Ben Greet edition with full and valuable stage directions). Especially suited to out-of-door performance, highly recommended. 5 acts. 17 men, 4 women, attendants. Costumes of Shakespeare's time. Doubleday, Page. $1.50.

Also in William Warren acting edition. Baker. 25c.

THE ELOPEMENT OF ELLEN—Marie J. Warren. An easy and very amusing comedy of modern American life. 3 acts. 4 men, 3 women. Settings: 1 interior, 1 exterior scene. Baker. 25c.

EVERYMAN—(edited by Clarence G. Child). The famous old English morality play, not difficult to produce and very worth while. Especially recommended for schools. 3 men, 4 women. Costumes in character. No special scenery. Houghton Mifflin. (Riverside Edition). 32c.

Volume also includes Abraham and Isaac, The Second Shepherd's Play, The Robin Hood Plays, and The Saint George Play—all early English plays.

THE IMPORTANCE OF BEING EARNEST—Oscar Wilde. Brilliant English society farce, especially recommended. 3 acts. 5 men, 4 women. Settings not difficult but elaborate: 2 interiors, 1 exterior. Baker, and French. 50c.

SHE STOOPS TO CONQUER—Oliver Goldsmith (the William Warren edition with full stage directions). A romantic comedy, not too difficult and especially recommended. 5 acts. 15 men, 4 women. 18th century costumes. Settings: 3 interiors. Baker. 25c.

THE VICAR OF WAKEFIELD—Oliver Goldsmith (dramatized by Marguerite Merrington). Especially recommended to high schools. 5 acts. 13 men, 7 women. Costumes of the period. Settings: 3 simple interiors. Duffield. $1.25.

A WOMAN'S A WOMAN FOR A' THAT—Mary MacMillan (in Short Plays). A comedy of a woman doctor and her patient. Lively, not difficult. 2 men, 3 women. Interior setting. Stewart. $1.50.

Volume includes The Shadowed Star, The Ring, The Rose, Luck? Entr' Acte, A Fan and Two Candlesticks, A Modern Masque, The Futurists, and The Gate of Wishes.

HOLLY TREE INN—Charles Dickens (dramatized by Mrs. Oscar Beringer). An excellent play for older children or grown-ups. 3 men, 4 women. 18th century costumes. Setting: an old-fashioned interior, decorated for Christmas. French. 25c.

THE LOVE-CHASE—James Sheridan Knowles. An excellent old English comedy. Not very difficult and offering opportunity for fine acting. 5 acts. 11 men, 6 women. Costumes of the time of Charles II. Settings: rather elaborate interiors, may be simplified. French. 25c.

MERRY WIVES OF WINDSOR—William Shakespeare. A comedy which is especially recommended to schools. 5 acts. 16 men, 4 women, servants, etc. Costumes of the period. Settings: simple or elaborate. French. 25c.

A MIDSUMMER NIGHT'S DREAM—William Shakespeare (the Ben Greet edition with full and valuable stage directions. The settings may be simple or elaborate and the play is especially suited to out-of-doors. 4 acts. 11 men, 10 women, fairies and attendants. Costumes of Shakespeare's time. Doubleday, Page. $1.50.

Also in William Warren acting edition. Baker. 25c.

ADDRESSES OF PUBLISHERS OF BOOKS LISTED

E. P. Dutton and Co., 681 Fifth Ave., New York City.
Samuel French, 28-30 West 38th Street, New York City.
Henry Holt and Company, 19 West 44th Street, New York City.
Little, Brown and Co., 34 Beacon St., Boston, Massachusetts.

The Macmillan Co., 66 Fifth Ave., New York City.
Robert M. McBride and Co., 7 West 16th. Street, New York City.
Saalfield Publishing Co., Akron, Ohio.
Charles Scribner's Sons, 597 Fifth Ave., New York City.

Books on Dramatic Production

(Selected from *Play Production for Amateurs,* U. N. C. Extension Bulletin Vol. I, No. 14).

HOW TO PRODUCE PLAYS—Barrett H. Clark. "A practical manual" for amateur actors and managers, treating Organization, Casting, Rehearsing, Lighting, Scenery, Costumes and Staging. A valuable list of amateur plays is included. Illustrated. Little, Brown. $1.75.

HOW TO PRODUCE CHILDREN'S PLAYS—Constance D'Arcy Mackay. A practical handbook. Contains also lists of plays, pageants, etc. Holt. $1.35.

PRACTICAL STAGE DIRECTING FOR AMATEURS—Emerson Taylor. "A handbook for amateur managers and actors." Especially helpful to those planning a dramatic organization. Dutton. $2.00.

PRODUCING AMATEUR ENTERTAINMENTS—Helen Ferris. A practical book on the production of popular entertainments, "stage stunts," drills, etc. Though the book is concerned primarily with variety programs, it is valuable for anyone who wishes suggestions for staging, publicity, and practical details of organizing for a performance. Illustrated. Dutton. $2.50.

Make-Up, Costumes, Scenery

THE ART OF THEATRICAL MAKE-UP—Canvendish Morton. Contains photographs demonstrating varied make-ups, in all stages of the work. Macmillan. $1.40.

THE BANKSIDE COSTUME BOOK FOR CHILDREN—Mellicent Stone. Contains pictures and working directions for making Shakespearean costumes. Saalfield. $1.00.

COSTUMES OF COLONIAL TIMES—Alice Morse Earle. An account of early dress, together with a listed description of articles of costume. Not illustrated. Scribners. $1.50.

COSTUMES AND SCENERY FOR AMATEURS—Constance D'Arcy Mackay. A practical handbook containing many suggestions, scene and costume plates, and reference lists of books and pictures. Holt. $1.75.

DYES AND DYEING—Charles E. Pellew. An invaluable handbook for the costume designer. Illustrated. McBride. $2.50.

HOW TO MAKE-UP—S. J. A. Fitz-Gerald. Rather out-of-date, but a source of some useful information. Illustrated. French. $.50.

SECRETS OF SCENE PAINTING AND STAGE EFFECTS—Van Dyke Brown. The description of methods, materials, etc., is valuable, though the designs are inartistic and should not be followed. Dutton. $2.00.

TWO CENTURIES OF COSTUME IN AMERICA—Alice Morse Earle. An interesting and accurate description of early American dress, from 1620-1820. In two volumes with valuable photographic illustrations. Macmillan. $2.50.

ADDRESSES OF PUBLISHERS OF PLAYS LISTED

Doubleday, Page and Company, Garden City, New York.
Dramatic Publishing Company, 542 South Dearborn Street, Chicago, Ill.
Samuel French, 20-30 West 38th Street, New York City.
Houghton Mifflin Company, 4 Park Street, Boston, Mass.
Little, Brown and Company, 34 Beacon Street, Boston, Mass.
Stewart and Kidd, 121 East Fifth Avenue, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Games and Drills

GAMES FOR PLAYGROUND, HOME AND SCHOOL—Bancroft. The Macmillan Co., 66 Fifth Ave., New York City. $2.00.

A book filled with games of every character and description. Every teacher should own this book. Games for indoors, outdoors, songs, games, dances, puzzles, party plans and ideas—practically everything in the recreation field for practical use.

GAMES—Draper. Association Press, 347 Madison Ave., New York City. $1.00 plus postage.

Over three hundred games arranged for the convenient use of teachers, church leaders, Y. M. C. A. secretaries, welfare workers, and parents. The equipment is so simple that it is readily available in the most remote places. This little book is of pocket size and makes a splendid handbook for all types of games.

The Department of Recreation, Russell Sage Foundation, 130 East 22nd Street, New York City, will send helpful material if requested.

SCHOOL ROOM GAMES—Boyd. School of Civics and Philanthropy, Chicago, Ill. 25 cents.

This little booklet gives a set of games for use in the school room, hall or auditorium. On rainy days, in inclement weather, or at times when the playground is not available these games will serve for indoor recreation. Many games that are played out of doors may be adapted to the school room.

A very attractive and practical set of handbooks on Play and Recreation is issued by Community Service, 1 Madison Ave., New York City.

A set containing the following pamphlets may be obtained: *Community Recreation*, 30 cents; *Comrades in Play*, 30 cents; *Layout and Equipment of Playgrounds*, 30 cents; *Community Music*, 50 cents; *Pioneering for Play*, 30 cents; *What Can We Do*, 25 cents; *Recreative*

Athletics, 50 cents; *Summer Camps—Municipal and Industrial*, 30 cents; *Games and Play for School Morale*, 25 cents; *Fun for Everyone—a Pocket Encyclopedia of Good Times*, 50 cents.

OLD FAMILIAR DANCES—Gott. Oliver Ditson Co., 178 Tremont St., Boston, Mass.

A unique selection of many attractive dances of years ago, dances of other countries, festival dances of local color. Whenever a field contest is held or a festive day celebrated it adds interest and attractiveness to have some group dances. This little booklet will be of value for such occasions.

GUIDE TO TRACK AND FIELD WORK CONTESTS AND KINDRED ACTIVITIES—Stecker. J. J. McVey Co., Philadelphia, Pa. 50 cents.

It will undoubtedly add great interest to the play movement if arrangements and plans are made for some type of athletic contest. This little book contains useful ideas and practical suggestions for such contests. It gives rules for field events, suggested programs, and many hints for carrying such contests to success.

The Playground and Recreation Association of America, 1 Madison Ave., New York City, will send valuable material for the play supervisor.

CHILDREN'S SINGING GAMES—Hofer. A. Flanagan Co., Chicago, Ill. 75 cents.

A collection of singing games for children of the elementary grades. The games are explained and the music given. Many dancing games especially adapted for festival days are included.

THE RURAL PLAYGROUND—Meyer. University Extension Division, Chapel Hill, N. C. 25 cents.

There are numbers of free pamphlets. A short list is given here:

PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS. State Department of Public Instruction, Raleigh, N. C.

COMMUNITY RECREATION—Draper. Association Press, 347 Madison Ave., New York City.

OUTDOOR ATHLETIC TESTS FOR BOYS—Brown. Association Press, 347 Madison Ave., New York City.

JOY AND HEALTH THROUGH PLAY. U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

GAMES FOR RURAL SCHOOLS. Published by Berea College, Berea, Ky.

A bulletin of games for schools in rural communities where there is a lack of general equipment. This is a well-chosen selection.

EDUCATION BY PLAYS AND GAMES—Johnson. Ginn and Co., Atlanta, Ga. 90 cents.

This book is one to inspire as well as to instruct. It touches the psychological side of play and points out the place and possibilities of play in education. The book contains a generous number of games suitable to each grade of school children with clear instructions as to the method of playing the games and the variations which may be introduced.

ICE BREAKERS and THE ICE BREAKER HERSELF—Geister. The Woman's Press, 600 Lexington Ave., New York City. $1.35.

These are two fine books for party ideas, stunts, and games. They contain suggestions and talks to and for successful recreational leaders.

Folk Dances

THE FOLK DANCE BOOK—Ward. A. S. Barnes and Co., 30 Irving Place, New York City.

FOLK DANCES AND GAMES—Crawford. A. S. Barnes and Co., New York City.

FOLK DANCING AND SINGING GAMES—Burchenal. G. Schirmer, 3 E. 43rd St., New York City.

FOLK FESTIVALS—Needham. B. W. Huebsch, 116 W. 13th St., New York City.

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA RECORD
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UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA
EXTENSION BULLETIN

RELATIVITY

A ROMANCE OF SCIENCE

BY
ARCHIBALD HENDERSON

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA PRESS
CHAPEL HILL, N. C.
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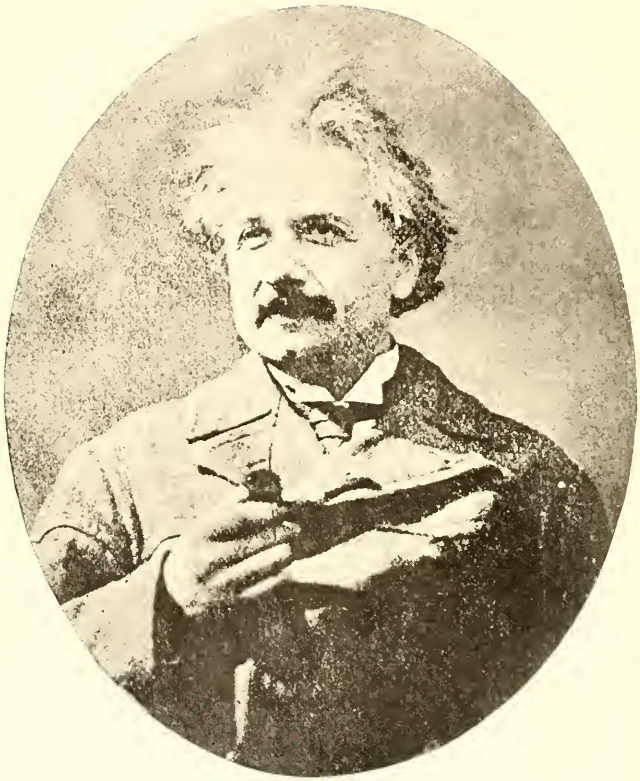

ALBRECHT EINSTEIN

University of North Carolina Extension Bulletin

RELATIVITY

A ROMANCE OF SCIENCE

By ARCHIBALD HENDERSON, M.A., Ph.D., D.C.L., LL.D.
Member Circolo Matematico di Palermo, American Mathematical Society, Mathematical Association of America, etc., etc.; President of the North Carolina Academy of Science; Head of the Department of Mathematics, University of North Carolina.

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA PRESS
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TO

ALBRECHT EINSTEIN

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"And Einstein, too, has lately taken wing
But like a hawk encumbered with his hood,—
Explaining Relativity to the nation—
I wish he would explain his Explanation."

(With apologies to Byron.)

INTRODUCTION

"Einstein is one of the most original minds I have ever met. In spite of his youth he already occupies a very honourable position among the foremost savants of his time. What we marvel at in him, above all, is the ease with which he adjusts himself to new conceptions and draws all possible deductions from them. He does not cling tightly to classical principles, but sees all conceivable possibilities when he is confronted with a physical problem. In his mind this becomes transformed into an anticipation of new phenomena that may some day be verified in actual experience." *Henri Poincaré* (1911).

One of the epochal contributions of mind toward the task of unveiling the secrets of nature and discovering the fundamental laws of natural phenomena is the theory of Relativity associated with the name of Albrecht Einstein. By reason of his bold hypotheses and brilliant original investigations, he takes rank with Copernicus, Kepler, Galileo, and Newton. As a mathematician his eminence is impressive—since his contribution may be interpreted as a monumental effort to give a purely mathematical interpretation of the physical universe. In this role, Einstein stands forth as the latest super-thinker in that modern galaxy of extraordinary brilliance: Riemann, Beltrami, Cayley, Lie, and Poincaré. Newton prevised a certain limited phase of relativity. It remained for Einstein to envisage an enlarged and deepened conception of universal relativity, aided by the theories, the experiments, and the achievements of Maxwell, Faraday, Michelson, Comstock, De Sitter and Lorentz.

Upon a solid foundation of physical experiment, Einstein built the Special Relativity Theory. Gravitation here is left out of account; and fundamental place is given to the constancy of light velocity in empty space. Only those systems moving with uniform relative velocity are included in this theory. Einstein's postulates are of unexampled boldness, since he assumed that space and time are relative with respect to motion, and not absolute. Einstein's now famous paper of 1905 created at the time little stir in the world, but made a profound impression upon scientists of the type of Poincaré, Lorentz, and Planck.

The vastly more comprehensive problem, which Einstein now set himself to solve, was as follows: To derive the laws of the physical universe, in which gravitation plays a fundamental role,

for all types of motion: uniformly and non-uniformly accelerated motion, translatory and rotatory, and these in combination. From the mathematical standpoint, this problem because of its generality and complexity seemed to defy solution. In order to achieve his end, Einstein was compelled to adopt a series of revolutionary hypotheses, which led to novel and bizarre results. By a strange hazard of good fortune, a powerful instrument devised by the pure mathematicians, comparatively unknown to physicists, lay ready to hand in the theory of Tensors. The beautiful researches of the Italian mathematicians, Ricci and Levi-Civita, in the subject named by them the Absolute Differential Calculus, furnished Einstein precisely the instrument he needed for building the towering structure of scientific mechanism known as the General Relativity Theory.

The system of spatial co-ordinate representation devised by Gauss, and the fertile conception of Riemann regarding space-manifolds of any number of dimensions, underlay the complex plans of Einstein for his structure of General Relativity. Deriving new notions of measuring space and time from the earlier theory; identifying inertial force with gravitational force; ignoring as essentially superfluous the current concept of the aether; boldly positing domains of four-dimensions to supplant the three-dimensional universe of Newton; substituting non-Euclidean geometry for the classic system of Euclid; and displacing gravitation from its paramount position as a force—Einstein has given us a wonderful new world to live in.

CHAPTER I

THE WORLD WE LIVE IN

"He stretcheth out the north over the empty place, and hangeth the earth upon nothing." . . . Job, xxvi, 7.

In an address in 1918, Einstein used these words: "Man seeks to form a simplified synoptical view of the world in a manner conformable to his own nature, in order to overcome the world of experience by replacing it, to a certain degree, by this picture. This is what the painter does, as also the poet, the speculative philosopher, and the research scientist, each in his own way. He transfers the centre of his emotional existence into this picture, in order to find a sure haven of peace, one such as is not offered in the narrow limits of turbulent personal experience."

A World Picture

Relativity furnishes us with Einstein's picture of the world. No one need pretend that the subject is simple. No one need deny that many of its conclusions and consequences are in violation of what people call "common sense." Sir Oliver Lodge said he felt sorry for the physicists of the future who were probably condemned to the torturing task of learning the mathematics of Relativity. The average man and woman (who for that matter knows nothing of the fundamentals of Newtonian mechanics) cowers before the intellectual menace of Relativity. Such people say: "Relativity has nothing to do with daily existence or the task of making a living. We'll leave it to the scientists." This point of view, which is the generally prevailing view, is thus effectively put by that chronicler of the commonplace, "Uncle Walt Mason":

"The Einstein Stuff"

"The Einstein theory's doubtless grand, but it's too hard to understand, to make it worth my while; my dome of thought is gray and old, and it might crack if asked to hold a burden of that style. When soulful people come to me to talk of relativity I tell them to vamoose; I have the courage to admit that Einstein hasn't made a hit compared with Mother Goose. I have the

courage to declare that I've no golden hours to spare for theories punk or grand, which make me sit up in my bed and wear a poultice on my head, if I would understand. I read my treasured Mother Goose, which jars no mental rivets loose, with its sustaining rhyme; I read of cats abducting spoons and milk cows jumping over moons, and have the blamedest time. And what I learn from Mother Goose I find is of the greatest use, it helps me day by day; but if I mastered Einstein's bunk it wouldn't bring me in a plunk, or help provide the hay. It would enable me, perhaps, to look with pity on the chaps who pass up all such lore; who store their minds from almanacs, and all day long get down to tacks and do the useful chore."

In the history of the world, I daresay, there has never been exhibited such popular interest in any scientific theory as is now exhibited in Relativity. Elaborate films have been constructed in order to instruct the public through the instrumentality of the "movies."

RELATIVITY FOR ALL

The compelling reason which has prompted the writing of this essay is: If Einstein be right in the essentials of his epochal theory, then it is obligatory upon all of us to remold utterly our ideas of the universe—just as it was necessary for the inhabitants of the world in the age of Copernicus to remold their ideas, replacing the geocentric by a heliocentric theory of the universe. If some of Einstein's conclusions are in violation of "common sense," we must as reasoning beings re-investigate the meaning of the term "common sense." By "common sense" as used in this way, do we not mean a description of the way in which one's mind is accustomed to work? Those things are "true" which are familiar and accessible to our understanding. If Relativity survives, it will compel a revision of those habitual judgments of ours which represent the accumulated mental habits of the race. William James put his finger upon the truth in the saying that "our various ways of feeling and thinking have grown to be what they are because of their utility in shaping our reactions on the external world." It is possible for the person with but the elements of mathematics at command to grasp the essentials of Relativity.

THE LAWS OF MECHANICS

Mechanics may be defined as the science which describes how the "position" of "bodies" in "space" alters with the "time." Here we speak of "position"—absolute or relative? Of "bodies," presumably made up of "matter," of which we know but little. Of "space," which is absolute, or relative to matter. Of "time," which is absolute, or relative to velocity. Mathematics may be defined as the science of symbolism for the expression of physical laws. These "laws," so-called, are formulations in general statements of the explanation of natural phenomena. They may include only a limited range of phenomena; and new researches may cause a modification of the so-called "law." These "laws" of nature, which are seldom, if ever, complete or perfect, are valid if they give adequate explanation of all the related phenomena.

THE MEANING OF RELATIVITY

Relativity is a theory of the physical universe. Rest and motion are only relative conceptions. There is, according to this theory, no unique state of motion—the state in which a body may be said to be *at rest*. The universe and all that there is therein is in a state of perpetual flux. The same thing appears differently to different observers, depending upon their position and motions with reference to the thing observed. A physical phenomenon is explained according to a certain "law," the law of falling bodies, Newton's first law of motion, the motion of a projectile in empty space, etc. But how shall we discover the "law" of a phenomenon, which appears differently to different observers? That is the problem of Relativity: to find the universal in the particular, the absolute in the relative. Relativity is an instrument of extraordinary refinement in the matter of discrimination, in finding mathematical forms of statement which correlate the divergent views of different observers. *Relativity is the science of formulating laws of nature which shall remain unchanged for all observers.*

THE RELATIVITY OF SIZE AND SHAPE

Suppose we have a square, as shown in figure 1 (a), as seen by an observer at rest. If an observer were to travel past it in an aeroplane at the incredible rate of 161,000 miles per second in

the direction of the arrow marked 1, relativity tells us that he would see a rectangle of which the length is now but half the height (Fig. 1 b). If the observer were traveling at the same rate in the direction of the arrow marked 2, he would see a parallelogram with one diagonal but half the length of the other (Fig. 1c.)

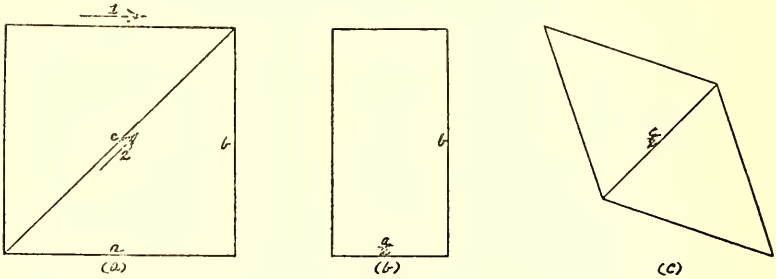


Fig. 1.

Relativity thus tells us that shape—for example the shape of the same body, as it appears to different observers—depends upon velocity. The function of relativity is to discover the laws under which, according to varying circumstances (here rest, or motion with the same velocity in certain chosen directions), the same body appears differently to three observers differently oriented with respect to the body.

It is important to observe that shape, as viewed by an observer, depends on his direction and velocity relative to the object. Thus, since velocity depends on time, we see that shape depends on time. Shape is ordinarily regarded as a space attribute. Relativity teaches us that shape is an attribute of both space and time. The relativist does not draw a dividing line between three-dimensional space and one-dimensional time. He thinks in terms of space and time in a common union or amalgam. He does not think of space independently of time: the two are inextricably associated. The world of the relativist is called a continuum; and this continuum is four-dimensional, three of the dimensions being spatial, and one being temporal.

RELATIVITY IN DAILY LIFE

We are all earth-bound creatures, addicted to the habit of thinking of absolute space and of fixed position. Neither exists

in nature. We actually deal always with space in some aspect of relativity; and the conception of fixity in position is a mere figment of the imagination. At the moment of writing these words I am whirling through space in a series of complicated motions which would be difficult to explain accurately. During the writing of the last sentence I have traveled several hundred miles through space. We know that the earth is traveling through space at the rate of about eighteen and a half miles per second, as referred to the sun; and if we had not traveled along with it, we should have been left far behind, like Mahomet's coffin dangling somewhere in vacant space.

The earth has a very low velocity as compared to that of such a remote star as Arcturus, the light from which is supposed to take almost a century to reach us. For an object of its size, its speed is almost inconceivably great, for it is perhaps one thousand times the size of the sun. Nevertheless it is so remote from us in the inter-stellar spaces that were Ptolemy, who recorded its position at the beginning of the Christian era, to observe it now, he would scarcely be able to detect a shift. This elementary illustration of the relativity principle—in the disparity between the magnitude of the star and the apparent almost infinitesimal shift in its position—has been happily expressed in a poem in London *Punch*.

Arcturus is whirling across space
  In a race
With himself at a pace
Which takes him through heaven,
  Professors have reckoned,
At two fifty-seven
  Full miles to the second.
Just imagine him fizzing
  And whizzing;
His size, as he flies
Is a mass of twelve hundred and more times the sun
In an eager endeavour he dashes forever
Straight on with no possible object but fun.
For if Ptolemy saw him today
  He would say
"You're a runaway star,

But you haven't got far,
And, forgive the remark, you were just where you are
When I saw you some thousands of seasons ago.
For a star of your parts, you're confoundedly slow.

OUR MOTION THROUGH SPACE

Suppose I meet you in front of the main entrance of the Capitol in Washington, and say: "I will meet you here tomorrow." If I am asked: "Do you mean you will return to the same point in space?" and should thoughtlessly answer, "Yes." I should be wrong. By tomorrow the Capitol has journeyed hence a million miles, perhaps. And while the earth has been carrying the Capitol along with it, the sun, too, has suffered displacement with reference to the Milky Way. And it may well be that the Milky Way in turn has undergone a motion, the velocity of which we are unable to detect. There is no means of knowing either the exact magnitude or the direction of the position I now occupy. It is passing strange that we are unable to detect this displacement in space. But it is concealed from our observation, because of the smoothness of the motion and because all the objects that constitute our environment are moving together.

When I meet you again tomorrow in front of the main entrance of the Capitol, I am not at the same place in space. But I am in the same relative position to the doorway, even although the earth meanwhile may have travelled a million miles through space. When I say I meet you *at the same place* I mean *same* as referred to some definite frame of reference—such as the frame-work of the door itself. This is in reality a moving frame of reference; but it is rigidly attached to some definite object on the earth's surface.

These facts are well enough known to everyone nowadays not to excite any surprise. But we must bear in mind the fact that when these truths were first advanced, they encountered the most violent opposition and disbelief. It was only after a century or more of controversy that scientists were able to displace the old popular belief in the fixity of the earth, that is, of our frame of reference, in favor of the belief that it was in motion.

If Relativity be ultimately established in place of the Newtonian theory of the universe, it will only be after a considerable period and in face of much scepticism and vigorous opposition.

The Frame of Reference

If we were to confine our attention to the Solar system alone, excluding everything else, we might satisfactorily enough attach our frame of reference to the sun on the assumption that it was at rest. But if we look through a telescope at the so-called fixed stars, we shall find that they too are in motion—as Bradley pointed out as long ago as 1727. Among the fixed stars is a drifting tendency which indicates beyond question that our sun itself is moving.

We might then hitch our frame of reference to a sort of mean or average position of all the stars visible to the naked eye, and accept the conclusion of Herschel, with the more accurate modern determination, that the entire solar system is moving through space at the rate of about twelve and a half miles per second in the direction of the Star Vega.

Astronomers were content with this frame of reference until within the last decade, when observations upon the nebulae, at vastly remoter distances from us than the stars visible to the naked eye, revealed extremely rapid motions. A new frame of reference was then hitched, by the imagination of the astronomers, to the average of the nebulae; and it then appeared as if the solar system were moving through space, with reference to this hypothetical frame of reference, at a speed of something like four hundred miles per second.

Where then in the universe shall we find a fixed position or fixed framework? Which one of all these systems is stationary? Are the nebulae moving and the stars at rest, or are the nebulae at rest, or are they both moving past each other in different directions? No categorical answer is possible. Out of this fruitless search for a fixed position in space has arisen the Theory of Relativity.

The Relativity of Newton

Fundamental in the Newtonian mechanics is Galileo's *law of inertia* which states that a body sufficiently far removed from all other bodies continues in its state of rest or uniform motion in a

straight line. *A Galilean system is one, the state of motion of which is such that the law of inertia holds for it.* Classic mechanics is valid only for such Galilean or inertial frames of reference. This abstraction is a necessity imposed by the law of motion. Upon it rests Newtonian mechanics, and in particular what is known as the *mechanical principle of relativity.*

As Corollary V to his famous laws of motion, Newton sets down the following:

> "The motions of bodies included in a given space are the same among themselves, whether that space is at rest or moves uniformly forward in a right line without any circular motion."

In elucidation of this statement Newton asserts that we have a clear proof of the above statement "from the experiment of a ship, where all motions happen after the same manner whether the ship is at rest, or is carried uniformly forward in a right line." In a room, the relative motions of the bodies on the ship are entirely independent of the speed at which the ship is moving, or the direction of its motion. Toss a ball vertically upward, as you stand on the ship's deck, and it comes down into your hands again. Release an object and it falls vertically downward. Newton's laws of motion hold for bodies on the ship just as they hold for bodies on land.

THE MECHANICAL PRINCIPLE OF RELATIVITY

To make clear to ourselves the exact meaning of the mechanical principle of relativity, let us suppose an aeroplane flies in a straight line at a rate of 200 miles per hour diagonally over an automobile moving along a straight track at the rate of 100 miles per hour. I am standing beside the track, and am able to note the uniform velocities mentioned by means of a stop-watch or some electrical device. The given velocities are the velocities the aeroplane and the automobile as referred to the earth (a stationary observer on the earth). To the chauffeur in the rapidly moving automobile, the aeroplane would seem likewise to travel in a straight line with uniform velocity; but neither the direction of the flight nor the value of the velocity would agree with the recorded observations of the stationary observer.

It is to be noted that the frame of reference of the chauffeur is rigidly attached to the moving automobile. Since the earth and the automobile may both be regarded as carriers of inertial systems, as we are only dealing with short distances, we may formulate the Mechanical Principle of Relativity as follows:

> If a body be moving uniformly and rectilinearly with respect to a co-ordinate system (frame-work) K, then it will likewise move uniformly and rectilinearly with respect to a second co-ordinate system (frame-work) K′; provided that the latter be moving uniformly and rectilinearly with respect to the first system K.*

If we refresh our memory in regard to a Galilean or inertial system, we will note that the Mechanical Principle of Relativity means: K′ which moves uniformly and rectilinearly with respect of an inertial system K, is itself an inertial system. The law of motion remains the same, no matter whether we refer it to K or K′. The two inertial systems are acquivalent for the description of this law of mechanics. And in general: All inertial systems are equivalent for the laws of mechanics. Obviously a set of equations, which we call a transformation, is needed to pass from one inertial system to another. Phrased in mathematical language, the above law may be phrased:

The laws of mechanics remain formally unaltered for any transformation from one set of inertial axes to another.

A FAMILIAR ILLUSTRATION

In formulating the theory of Relativity, Einstein concerned himself with all *physical* laws, optical, electro-dynamic, electro-magnetic, etc., as well as mechanical. Consequently he was concerned with formulating a principle of relativity far wider in scope than the one just cited, which refers only to *mechanical* laws. Before taking up Einstein's own theory, let us familiarize ourselves at the outset with illustrations of the actual working of the Mechanical Principle of Relativity. The notion of relative motion—that is, motion with reference to an observer—is the basis of all relativity.

*In the above illustration, the aeroplane represents the body, K is the earth, and K′ is carried by the automobile. Anyone attempting to understand relativity should master this principle. Innumerable examples might be given.

Suppose a ship moves westward at any given velocity and a passenger on deck walks eastward at the same velocity. It is not correct to say that the passenger is moving east, since the ship is carrying him to the west as fast as he walks to the east; nor is it correct to say that the passenger is moving west, since he is walking to the east as fast as the ship carries him toward the west. In respect to a stationary observer on land, the passenger is stationary, although his fellow-passengers clearly observe that he is in motion. That he is not really stationary in space is known, since the earth is revolving upon its axis, so that the man is really moving to the east at the rate of roughly one thousand miles per hour. If now we take into further consideration the fact that the earth is moving in its orbit at the rate of some sixty-eight thousand miles per hour with reference to the sun, the passenger's rate of motion is really not one thousand miles per hour to the east but some sixty-seven thousand miles per hour to the west. But even this does not sum up the totality of his motions. For to the motions already described we must adjoin the motion of the whole solar system in the direction of the constellation of Hercules. And the necessary approximations involved in the computations would still further alter the recorded results of the passenger's motion.

It is essential to observe that the passenger on the ship (aside from the throb of the engines, the force of the waves, etc.) cannot tell, so long as the ship continues in simple uniform motion in a straight line, that the ship is in motion, so long as he observes only things that happen in the system, namely, on board the ship. He can only detect this motion when he observes something outside of the ship as a point of reference.

RELATIVITY OF TRAJECTORY

The following illustration admirably illustrates the different aspects of the same phenomenon as viewed by observers placed in varying positions and circumstances. Imagine a closed steel sphere containing a human being to be dropped (without rotation) over the side of a vessel in uniform rectilinear motion. To the person within the ball (until it strikes the water surface), the ball seems to be at rest. To an observer looking over the rail, the ball seems to fall straight down the ship's side. To an ob-

server on land, the ball appears to fall in a parabolic curve. To a super-observer located at the North Pole, the ball would appear to whirl in a circle. To a super-observer located on Mars, the ball would appear to dart in a spiral about the sun. To a super-observer located on a star, the ball would appear to gyrate through space in a path of incalculably complex motion. All of these tracks of the ball through space are equally real; none is any more real than another. The one to be singled out for attention is dependent entirely upon the observer and the objects to which he refers his motion.

Relativity of Motion

All of us are familiar with simple relativity, although perhaps not under that name. A traveller is in one train observing another train on a parallel track. A number of different cases are to be noted.

1. The passenger on the first train glances at the other train and thinks that it is stationary while his own train is in motion; but not until his eye catches some point fixed to the earth is he able to discover that, in reality, his train is at rest while it is the other train that is in motion.

2. The passenger may think that the other train is in motion and his own at rest; and is only able to detect that the reverse is the case, by fixing his gaze upon an object fixed to the ground.

3. Take two trains moving in the same direction on parallel tracks. To a passenger on the first train, the second train may appear to be moving backwards while his train appears to be at rest—whereas in reality his own train is gaining on the other train.

4. Finally, when the two trains are moving in opposite directions, the passenger may think either that his own train is stationary and other moving backwards, or that the other train is stationary and his own moving forward. He cannot detect the exact nature of the physical phenomenon until he has fixed his attention upon some stationary object rigidly attached to the earth.

APPARENT CONTRACTION OF LENGTH

In the theory of relativity, we shall have occasion later to consider the phenomenon of apparent contraction. A simple illustration of this phenomenon may be instanced here. Imagine a series of vertical posts the height of the train, say, planted beside a railroad track and one yard apart. As the speed of the train is increased the posts begin to appear closer and closer together, to an observer looking out of the car window. It is conceivable that eventually the train might be made to go so fast that the succession of posts would appear to the passenger like a solid wall. This would be the case, theoretically, when the train attained a speed comparable to the velocity of light. In practice, the phenomenon would doubtless exhibit itself when the train had attained a speed much below the velocity of light.

THE VELOCITY OF LIGHT

Before proceeding to a discussion of Einstein's theory of relativity, it will be necessary to describe certain physical experiments upon which this theory is based. These have primarily to do with light and the aether. Let us first take up the subject of light velocity. Prior to the time of Roemer, it was universally believed that light travelled with infinite velocity. Twelve years before the appearance of Newton's *Principia* (1686-7) Olaf Roemer, a Danish astronomer, observed that an eclipse of one of the satellites of Jupiter occurred some ten minutes later than the time predicted for the event from the known period of th satellite and the time of the preceding eclipse. He explained this delay by the hypothesis that it took light twenty-two minutes to travel across the earth's orbit. Somewhat more accurate determination soon showed that this time was about sixteen minutes. Since the diameter of the earth's orbit is approximately 186,000,000 miles, it follows that the velocity of light, as determined by this calculator, is roughly 311,000 kilometres, or about 193,000 miles per second. More recent determinations give the velocity of light in empty space in round numbers, to be 300,000 kilometres per second, or 186,000 miles per second.*

*A close determination is 186,330 miles per second. Professor A. A. Michelson has recently been engaged in making an even more accurate determination.

That is, a ray of light, if sent in a circular path, would travel more than seven times around the earth in a second. Light takes eight and a third minutes to reach us from the sun; four hours from the farthest planet, Neptune; four years from the nearest fixed star, Alpha Centauri; and perhaps four thousand years from the farther parts of the Milky Way. Some verses by Minchin cleverly illustrate the use of the spectroscope in determining the velocity of the stars:

Distant, scintillating star,
Shall I tell you what you are?
Nay, for I can merely know
What you were some years ago.

For the rays that reach me here
May have left your photosphere
Ere the flight of Waterloo,
Ere the pterodactyl flew.

Many stars have passed away
Since your ether-shaking ray
On its lengthy journey sped,
So that you, perhaps, are dead.

But, supposing all is well,
What you're made of can I tell?
Yes, 'twill be an easy task,
If my spectroscope I ask.

There, your spectrum now is spread,
Down from ultra-blue to red,
Crossed by dark metallic lines,
Of your cooler layer the signs.

Hence among the starry spheres,
You've arrived at middle years;
You are fairly old and ripe,
Of our solid solar type.

Ah! Your sodium line is seen
Strongly shifted toward the green,
Hence you are approaching me
With a huge velocity.

CHAPTER II

THE SPECIAL THEORY

"The Special Relativity Theory surpasses in boldness everything previously suggested in speculative natural philosophy and even in the philosophical theories of knowledge. Non-Euclidean geometry is child's play in comparison. . . . . The revolution introduced into the physical conceptions of the world is only to be compared in extent and depth with that brought about by the Copernican system of the universe."—*Max Planck.*

The Aether

The conception of the aether goes back to the time of Descartes, in the earlier half of the seventeenth century. "To Descartes," says James Clerk Maxwell, "who made extension the sole essential property of matter, and matter a necessary condition of extension, the bare existence of bodies apparently at a distance was a proof of the existence of a continuous medium between them." Descartes was thoroughly modern in his denial of the possibility of action at a distance. If then, as we know, the sun interacts with the planets, sending them light and heat and influencing their motions, it follows on Descartes' theory that "interplanetary space must be a *plenum,* occupied by matter imperceptible to the touch but capable of serving as the vehicle of force and light."

Newton, who gave vogue and involuntarily the weight of his great name to the corpuscular theory of light, held the view that it is not possible to conceive of direct mechanical action independent of means of transmission. A fundamental purpose of the aether, for example, is to carry the light ray; and Huyghens (b. 1629, d. 1695) gave strong support to the wave theory of light. Thus we see two theories contending for supremacy: the emission or corpuscular theory of light; and the wave or undulatory theory of light. According to the emission theory, tiny particles are emitted by radiant bodies; and these tiny particles or corpuscles, on striking the eye, give the sensation of light. According to the undulatory theory, light propagates itself after the fashion of waves upon a water surface or of sound waves in the air. The light ray not only ad-

vances rectilinearly at the rate of 300,000 kilometres per second, but also vibrates transversely at enormous velocity. A medium, known as the *lumeniferous aether,* was presumed to exist, in which the light ray could undulate. Many different theories of the aether were put forward by scientists during the next two centuries. A new era was inaugurated in 1856, when Weber and Kohlrausch discovered that the velocity of electro-magnetic waves was precisely the same as the velocity of light waves, viz: $3x10^{10}$ centimeters per second. The properties of the so-called aether, deduced from the phenomena of light, were found to be the very same properties needed to explain electromagnetic phenomena. We no longer think of a substantial aether; but we do think of a homogeneous, isotropic, all-pervasive medium which vibrates in the creation of the light-ray or serves as the base or seat of the electro-magnetic field.

IS THE AETHER STATIONARY OR MOBILE?

One of the fundamental questions having to do with the aether is the question as to whether it is mobile or stationary. When bodies, such as the earth or the moon, move through the aether, the further questions arise: Does the aether remain stagnant; or does it suffer an entrainment or drag as the result of the neighboring motion of large masses of matter? The matter still awaits final settlement; but the view is now pretty generally held by scientists that, assuming the aether to exist, it must be stationary and immobile. As the earth rushes through space at the rate of eighteen and a half miles per second, the aether must filter through the molecular interstices of earth matter without appreciable opposition—just as the air filters through the meshes of a sieve.

"ABSOLUTE" VELOCITY

Light spreads out from any hot body, as we know, at the rate of 186,330 miles per second. This light carries energy with it; and the medium through which this energy exerts itself is called the aether. If then the aether exists, as the medium through which light travels in every direction at the same speed, then here at last, thought the scientists, was the stationary system by means of which "absolute" motion might be measured. All co-ordinate systems in uniform relative motion would not be

symmetrical on this supposition. An unique frame of reference might be presumed fixed in this stationary aether; and this unique frame of reference could then be used as a basis for the measurement in the "absolute" sense of all other motions. To be precise, we might use a frame of reference or set of axes, fixed with respect to the aether. Bodies found to be at rest with respect to this system of axes fixed in the aether would be spoken of as "absolutely" at rest. Bodies in motion through the aether would be said to have "absolute" motion.

The hope was naturally entertained of discovering the velocity of various bodies, and in particular the velocity of the earth, through the aether. The direction of such a motion, if it exists, was not known; but certain facts were known. In its motion around the sun the earth has, at different points in its orbit, a difference in velocity with respect to the surrounding medium which is double its orbital velocity with reference to the sun. This difference is about thirty-seven miles per second. The earth should therefore at some period of the year possess a velocity equal to or greater than eighteen and a half miles per second.

THE MICHELSON-MORLEY EXPERIMENT

In 1887, A. A. Michelson carried out a crucial experiment, with the hope of detecting the velocity of the earth through the aether. Later, in 1887, with the assistance of E. W. Morley, he repeated the experiment with greater refinement; and still again, in 1905-7, assisted by Morley and D. B. Miller, with even greater refinement. These experiments were still further supplemented by the experiments of Majorana. The delicacy of the instruments employed, the accuracy of the observations, the scientific standing of the observers, all tend to give a great measure of decisiveness and finality to the conclusions.

THE SAILOR AND THE LEAD

Suppose a sailor drops a lead over the side of a moving vessel into the sea. A circular ripple will spread out, but the point at which the lead enters the water will not remain at the center of this circle. The velocity with which the point of entry advances from the center of the circle will give the velocity of the vessel through the sea. Now let us imagine that our earth is the vessel ploughing through the sea of aether. Professor Michel-

son is the sailor; the emission through the aether of a ray of light in his laboratory is the dropping of the lead into the sea. The wave front emanating from this light signal is the ripple on the sea of aether. The result is that the wave-front appears to be a sphere having the observer at its center. If the earth is actually surrounded by a sea of aether, we shall see that the experiment shows the velocity of the earth relative to this sea of aether to be zero.

THE SWIMMER AND THE STREAM

Let us now approach the experiment from the standpoint of the relativist. A simple analogy may readily be understood by the reader (Fig. 2). Suppose we wish to discover whether it takes longer to swim to a point 100 yards up-stream and back, or to a point 100 yards across stream and back. Let us assume that the swimmer's speed is 50 yards per minute in still water, and the speed of the current 30 yards per minute. Then the swimmer's speed against the current is 20 yards per minute, with the current 80 yards per minute. The journey up stream takes 5 minutes (100/20); the journey down stream 1¼ minutes (100/80). Hence the time for the total journey up stream and back is 6¼ minutes.

Now in the journey across stream, the swimmer must swim on the bias, in order to compensate for his drift downward with the stream. Thus he must swim constantly toward R above

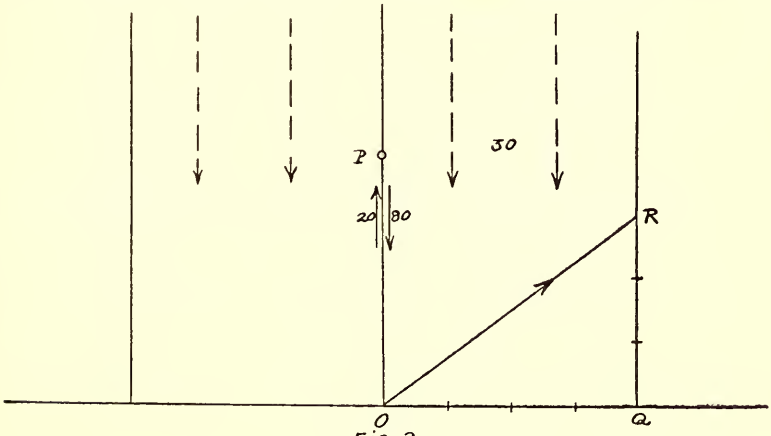


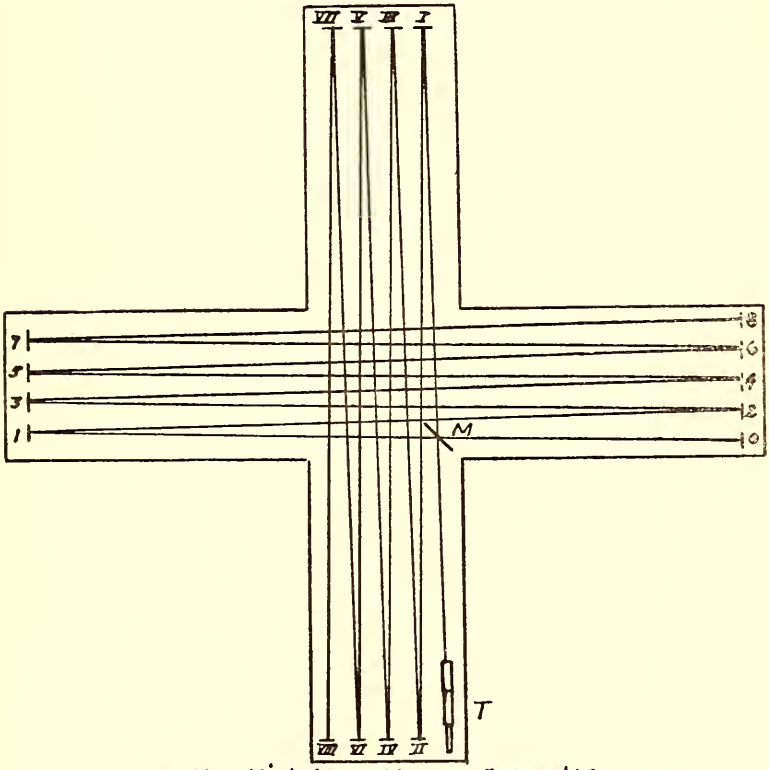
Fig. 2.

the point Q where he wishes to land. So that OR represents his distance travelled in still water, and RQ the distance he has drifted down stream. Thus his total swim must be to his total downward drift in the ratio of 50 to 30. Consequently, since the ratio of OQ to OR is as 40 is to 50, he must swim 125 yards on the bias to reach the bank at Q, exactly opposite to and 100 yards away from his starting point O. Hence the total time for making the swim across and back is 5 minutes (that is 2x125/50). In still water the time consumed by the swimmer in swimming 200 yards would be 4 minutes (200/50). It is to be observed that, in the present case, the up and down swim takes longer (6¼ minutes) than the cross journey (5 minutes).

The apparatus especially built for conducting the Michelson-Morley experiment was based on the principle of the swimmer and the stream. Calculation shows that, not only in the numerical case given above, but in *all* cases, the up and down journey always takes a longer time than the total journey across stream and back. The apparatus used in the experiment was devised to send out two rays of light—the direction of one turned at right angles to that of the other; and then by methods of "interference" to measure the retardation of one light ray behind the other. The velocity of light is very great as compared with the speed of the earth through the aether; and the path of the light-ray was only a few yards in length. The result was that the calculated retardation amounted to only a very small fraction of a *billionth of a second.* The interval of time employed by Michelson in measuring the relative retardations of the two light-rays was the time of vibration of a light-ray; and light rays vibrate at the rate of approximately six hundred thousand billion a second.

"The apparatus (Fig. 3), made of steel, was in the form of a cross which floated in a trough of mercury. At the end of each arm four mirrors were placed and so arranged as to reflect a ray of light back and forth between them. A ray, starting at T in the diagram, reached a mirror at M, where it divided into two parts. The first part travelled straight on to the mirror I, where it was reflected back to a corresponding mirror at the other end of the arm; thence it was reflected back and forth from end to end of the arm until it reached the last mirror. Here it was returned

over its course from mirror to mirror back to M again, where it was reflected back and forth from mirror to mirror until it also reached the observer at O. The two rays, or rather the two parts of the same ray, thus traveled over different paths at right angles to each other, and the retardation of the one ray over the other was measured by the observer with his delicate interferometer."*



The Michelson-Morley Apparatus
Fig. 3.

Now note the analogy of the experiment with the swimmer and the stream. The earth ploughs through the aether; the effect is the same as if the earth were still and the aether were a stream flowing past the earth. The light ray corresponds to the

*C. L. Poor: *Gravitation versus Relativity.* G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1922.

swimmer. The eight back and forth journeys for each ray merely increase the accuracy of the result to be attained. From the result of the problem of the swimmer and the stream, we naturally expect that the forward and back journey will take a longer time than the across stream journey.

A NULL RESULT

The result of the experiment was wholly unexpected. Its effects upon physical science have been spectacular and epochal. Michelson was confident that his instrument would register as small a retardation as one-hundredth part of the expected effect. *The rate of the two light-rays was a dead heat; each arrived back at the starting point at exactly the same instant.* Had the earth possessed a velocity of only two miles per second instead of eighteen and a half miles per second, the instrument used in the 1905-7 experiments was sufficiently accurate to detect it. No appreciable retardation could be detected. To test the equality of the lengths of the arms of the apparatus to which the mirrors were attached, the apparatus was rotated through a right angle; and again the result was a dead heat. The experiment was repeated again and again, indoors and outdoors, at different elevations and at all seasons of the year. The apparatus was turned in a great number of different directions in these experiments, since the precise direction of the earth through the aether was not known. But all to no purpose: the retardation always turned out to be zero.

EINSTEIN'S BOLD CONCLUSION

The conclusion which Einstein drew from this experiment was the following: *"There can be no aether drift, nor any experiment with which to demonstrate it."* That is, the earth and the (hypothetical) aether move together, are *relatively at rest. At all times, and in all directions, the light-ray moves past the earth-bound observer with the same speed.* Einstein draws the bold conclusion—a fundamental postulate—that the failure of this crucial experiment to detect the movement of the earth relative to the aether is final and decisive; and consequently that no experiment will ever detect this velocity. Since no means can ever be devised for detecting "absolute" motion, it follows that for the physicist "absolute" motion is meaningless. There can

only be *relative* motion. *All motion is relative to the observer.* The velocity of light is unaffected by the movement of the earth through the aether.

In the Special Relativity Theory, then, the aether as a form of matter is dispensed with. Light-signals project themselves *as such* through space. There is no longer a stagnant aether, according to Einstein's interpretation of the Milchelson-Morley experiment. The aether, if it exists, appears to be carried along by moving bodies.

Velocity of Light Independent of Motion of Source

According to the Michelson-Morley experiment, the velocity of light with reference to a stationary observer is the same in all directions. By observations on binary stars, Comstock (1910) and De Sitter (1913) showed that *the velocity of light is independent of the motion of the source of light.* This means, in simple language, that a light-ray passes a stationary observer at a fixed velocity, namely 186,330 miles per second in empty space, no matter whether or not the star or other source of light is itself moving toward or away from the stationary observer. According to the Newtonian Mechanics, if Arcturus, for example, be moving towards a stationary observer at the velocity of 250 miles per second, then a ray of light from Arcturus should move past the stationary observer at the velocity of light plus 250 miles per second, that is 186,580 miles per second. Against this theory, known as the Ritz theory, stand the observations of Comstock and De Sitter who maintain that a light ray from Arcturus passes a stationary observer merely at the rate of 186,330 m/s. This conclusion is fundamental in the Special Relativity Theory.

The Evolution of Special Relativity

Let us now endeavor to make perfectly clear to ourselves the actual evolution of the Special Relativity Theory, which carries in its train such extraordinary and revolutionary consequences.

First, the Michelson-Morley experiment finally confirmed Newton's original Mechanical Principle of Relativity (see page 17), namely that it is impossible to measure or detect absolute translatory motion through space. No experiment made on the earth has yet disclosed the velocity of the earth with reference

in the length and time units of O'. Please note, however, that to O the light-ray appears to pass O' with a velocity of 236,330 m/s; while to O' the light ray appears to pass O with the velocity of 86,330 m/s. Yet each makes out the velocity of the light-ray *with reference to himself,* to be *c*. We must now set down the

SECOND SPECIAL RELATIVITY PRINCIPLE

*The velocity of light in free space appears the same to all observers regardless of the relative motion of the source of light and the observer.**

CONCEPT OF AETHER RENDERED SUPERFLUOUS

The consequences flowing from these two principles overthrow our conventional conceptions of space and time, and virtually make the concept of the aether superfluous. According to the accepted theory of the lumeniferous aether, the velocity of light is supposed to be *constant with respect to the aether.* According to Einstein's theory, the velocity of light is constant with reference to the observer; and since the observer can never detect his movement with respect to the aether, there is no way of detecting the velocity of light with respect to the aether. "These relations to the aether have no effect on the phenomena and can be disregarded," says Eddington, "—a step which appears to divest the aether of the last remnants of substantiality."

THE RELATIVITY OF SIMULTANEITY

Next, let us show how our ideas of time are altered by the above two principles. All experiments and measurements are based on the ideas of space-coincidence and time-coincidence. Thus the concepts of detecting equal distances and simultaneity must be made perfectly clear. In order to recognize two remote events as simultaneous, Einstein lays down the following technic: An observer stationed midway between two points defines events at those two points as *simultaneous* if light-rays from the two events (say explosions) reach him at the same moment.

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*After this, the first and second Special Relativity Principles will be referred to as RI and RII.

Now let us take a train 18.6 miles long moving past a stationary platform with a velocity of, say, 100 miles per minute. Suppose O is a stationary observer on the platform midway between two points F and R on the platform corresponding to the

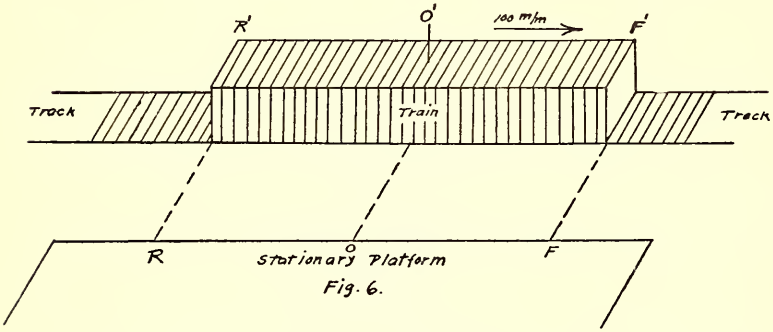

Fig. 6.

front and rear of the train (i. e., the distance F R equals 37.2 miles, the length of the train F′ R′). Suppose two lightning bolts strike F and R *simultaneously* as judged by O, the stationary observer placed midway between F and R. Now consider an observer O′ on the moving train and midway between front (F′) and rear (R′). The bolts are supposed to have struck at F and R when the ends of the train, F′ and R′, were exactly opposite F and R. Did the two events (lightning strokes) which appeared simultaneous to O also appear simultaneous to O′? *The answer must be in the negative.* O′ is moving *towards* F and *away from* R with a velocity of 100 miles per minute. Hence the light-ray from F takes a shorter time to reach O′ than does the light-ray from R. Hence the former will *register* at O′ first; and consequently the observer will conclude that the lightning struck at F *before* it struck at R. Hence we conclude:

*Events which are simultaneous for one rigid body of reference are not simultaneous for another body of reference in motion with regard to the first body of reference.**

Please note that the light rays from the lightning bolts, which strike F and R at 12 o'clock, say, both reach O at 1/10,000 sec-

*We have taken a simple case. But the theory applies to two systems which are in *relative* motion.

ond after 12 o'clock. The light ray from F reaches O′ slightly *earlier,* the light ray from R reaches O′ slightly *later,* than 12 hours, 0 minus, .0001 seconds.

THE RELATIVITY OF LENGTH

It follows at once that *time is relative*: events simultaneous for one system K are not simultaneous for another K′ in motion with respect to K. Similarly, *length is a relative conception.* Because the way to find the length of an object is to measure, say with a yard stick, the distance between two points occupied *simultaneously* by the two ends. Since simultaneity, as we have just seen, is *relative,* the distance between two points, since we depend in finding it upon a *simultaneous* reading of two events, must also be *relative.* Length as measured depends upon motion. *Any change of motion causes a change in the recorded length.* The *apparent* length—and this is the only meaning we can attach to length, since it is the length as *recorded* by our system of light signals—of a body *in motion* will always be *shorter* than the measured length of the body when at rest.*

Motion thus has a contractile effect upon the *record* of the length of a body. In the above illustration of the train and the embankment the length of the train at rest is 37.2 miles. The train in motion, as measured from the embankment, will be shorter. *This does not mean* that the train suffers any physical contraction. It means that, as measured in terms of the units of the stationary embankment, the *recorded length is* a smaller number than 37.2 miles.

One point should be made abundantly clear before we proceed. Let us take two systems K, K′ moving with relative ve-

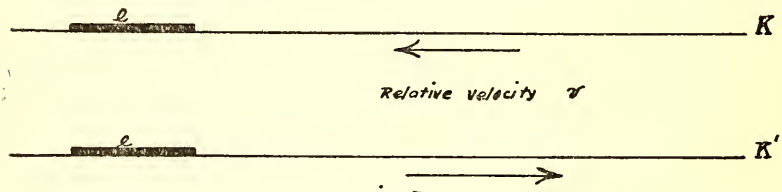

Fig. 7.

locity *v.* Let us take a stick of length L as measured when the stick is at rest and lay it in the system K. *Then to an observer*

*This may readily be seen on analysis of the phenomenon.

in K' its length, as measured by light signals, will be a certain length L ($L<l$). Similarly, if we lay the same stick of length l in the system K', its length, *as measured by an observer* in K, will give *precisely the same* result L ($L<l$). As measured in the units of K, the stick will be of length l likewise. This is because the stick and the measuring instruments *apparently* contact in the same rate. *The length of the stick in K as viewed from K' is the same as the length of the same stick in K' as viewed from K* (viz. L)—because the motion is uniform and *relative*. This is an excellent simple illustration of the *meaning of relativity*.

FAMILIAR ASSUMPTIONS DISCARDED

It should be recorded in set terms that the Special Relativity Theory abandons the following two assumptions which have been tacitly made in Newtonian Mechanics:

1. The time-interval (time) between two events is independent of the condition of motion of the body of reference.

2. The space-interval (distance) between two points of a rigid body is independent of the condition of motion of the body of reference.

THE LORENTZ TRANSFORMATION

We shall now seek to embody the two postulates or principles of Special Relativity in a series of mathematical equations. One problem then is: Given one set of co-ordinates x, y, z, t for a system K and another set x', y', z', t' for a system K', when K and K' are in uniform relative motion, what are the relations between the variables, on the basis of the two Special Relativity postulates? That is: What are the values x', y', z', t' of a point event with respect of K', when the magnitudes of the co-ordinates x, y, z, t of the same event with respect to K are given?

For the sake of simplicity, let us take two co-ordinate systems*, K. and K', having their x-axes permanently in co-incidence. It is convenient to divide the problem into two parts by considering first only events which are localized on the x-axis. Let us consider such a point-event, having co-ordinates (x, t)

*One rectangular box plan within another and set sliding along a common edge with a fixed relative velocity will give us a picture of the phenomenon.

with reference to the system K, (x′, t′) with reference to the system K′. We desire x′ and t′ when x and t are given.

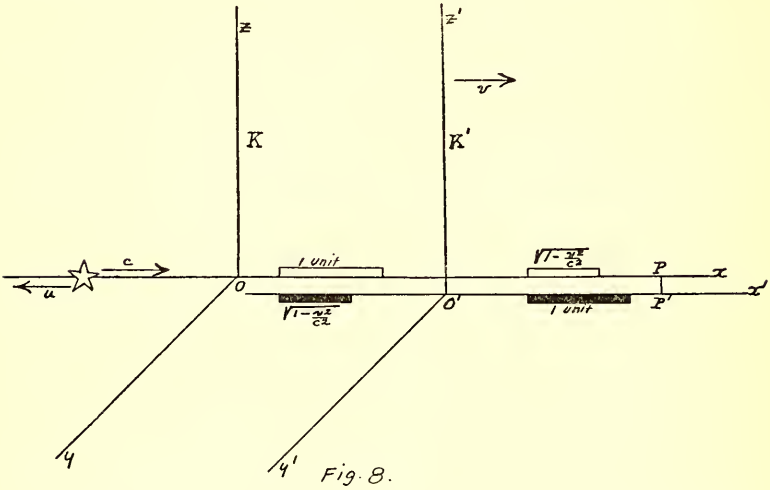

Fig. 8.

Now let us send out a light signal with velocity *c* from a star, say, moving in the negative direction of the x-axis with a velocity *u*. Hence for a given point-event (P;P′) we have, according to R II:

$$x = ct \quad \text{or} \quad x - ct = 0$$
$$x' = ct' \quad \text{or} \quad x' - ct' = 0$$

The most general equation embodying these two facts is

$$x' - ct' = d\,(x - ct) \qquad (1)\ (d = \text{constant})$$

Similarly, since the light-ray travels in the negative direction of the x-axis with the same velocity *c*, we have

$$(x' + ct') = g\,(x + ct) \quad (2)\ (g = \text{constant})$$

Adding and subtracting (1) and (2), and setting

$$d + g = 2a,\ d - g = 2b, \text{ we have:}$$

$$\left.\begin{aligned} x' &= ax - bct \\ ct' &= act - bx \end{aligned}\right\} \quad \ldots\ldots \quad (3)$$

Now from O′, where $x' = o$ permanently, we have from (3)

$$x = \frac{bc}{a} t$$

Hence the velocity v with which O′ is moving with reference to O is

$$v = \frac{bc}{a}^{*} \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (4)$$

Now we know that, by the principle of relativity, the length of a unit measuring rod at rest in K′ as estimated from K, is exactly the same as the length of a unit measuring rod at rest in K as estimated from K′ (see page 35.) Take a "snap-shot" of the unit in K′ from K; then for $t = o$, $x' = ax$. Hence corresponding to the unit ($x' = o$ to $x' = 1$) in K′ we have the length $1/a$. Similarly, taking a "snap-shot" of the unit in K from K′, we have for $t' = o$, from (3)

$$x' = ax - bct$$
$$o = act - bx$$

and then

$$x' = ax\ (1 - b^2/a^2)$$

Hence from (4), $x' = ax\ (1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2})$; and corresponding to a unit in K (from $x = o$ to $x = 1$) we have the length $a\ (1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2})$. Since these lengths must be identical, we have

$$\frac{1}{a} = a\ (1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2})$$

or

$$a^2 = \frac{1}{1 - v^2/c^2}$$

*In general, this is the velocity, as may be readily shown, of *any* point of K′ relative to K, or the velocity, directed toward the negative x-axis, of a point of K with respect to K′.

From equation (3), we easily derive

$$\left.\begin{aligned} x' &= \frac{x - vt}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}} \\ t' &= \frac{t - \frac{v}{c^2}x}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}} \end{aligned}\right\} \quad \ldots (5)$$

$$\left.\begin{aligned} y' &= y \\ z' &= z \end{aligned}\right\} \quad \ldots\ldots (6)$$

Now it may easily be shown that the velocity of light in *any* direction is the same with reference to both K and K′. Thus we wish to prove that if $\frac{r}{t} = c$, therefore $r' = \frac{c}{t'}$. Now the hypothesis gives

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - c^2t^2 = 0$$

But from equations (5) and (6), we have

$$x'^2 + y'^2 + z'^2 - c^2 t'^2 = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - c^2t^2$$

Hence

$$x'^2 + y'^2 + z'^2 - c^2 t'^2 = 0$$

Or

$$\frac{r'}{t'} = c.$$

In particular, if $x/t = c$, then $x'/t' = c$. *This makes clear why the velocity of light is the same for observers in K and in K′*—since the velocity is measured in the space and time units of each system.*

*This method of deriving the equations of the Lorentz Transformation is taken, with some modifications, from Einstein: *Relativity*: The *Special and the General Theory*. English translation. Holt, 1920.

The Lorentz Transformation may be expressed in either of the following forms:

$$\left.\begin{aligned} x' &= B\,(x - vt) \\ y' &= y \\ z' &= z \\ t' &= B\left(t - \frac{v}{c^2}x\right) \end{aligned}\right\} \quad (7) \text{ or } \quad \left.\begin{aligned} x &= B\,(x' + vt') \\ y &= y' \\ z &= z' \\ t &= B\left(t' + \frac{v}{c^2}x'\right) \end{aligned}\right\} \quad (8)$$

When $B = 1/\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}$ *

THE RELATIVITY OF DURATION

We have seen that the two observers ascribe a contraction to each other's lengths. A similar state of affairs exists as to the ways in which they regard each other's times. Let us consider a clock located at O′, and see how it is regarded as observed by O. Since $x' = o$ permanently for the clock at O′, we have from the fourth equation of (8)

$$t = B\,t'$$

Now t' is the time indicated on this clock according to O' and t is the time indicated on the same clock according to O. Since $t > t'$ $(B < 1)$, the clock appears to the observer at O to run more slowly than it does to the observer at O'. The observer at O hears the tick of the clock at O' after the corresponding tick of his own watch, running synchronously with the clock at O'.

ILLUSTRATION OF RELATIVITY OF TIME

This matter is very confusing at first; and may require further explanation. Suppose an electric sign on the front of a building is turning alternately red and green at regular intervals. Then to an observer moving past the sign in an automobile at uniform velocity, the periods for which it remains a given color are longer according to his watch than they are as measured by the watch of a stationary idler on the sidewalk.** Or take the following illustration. Suppose an observer on the ground is standing beside a table on which rests a huge clock; and that an aviator, travelling past at the unheard of velocity of 161,000 miles per second, also has a huge clock set in the side of his

*It should be noted that the *factor of contraction*, $\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}$, of a unit in *either* system as seen from the other, must be less than unity, since $v < c$.

**It is supposed that the two watches run at the same speed when placed side by side.

aeroplane. The average person would be inclined to say that each clock appears to the other fellow to run fast on approach, and slow down during recession. But the facts, according to the theory, are quite different. To the stationary observer, the aviator's clock runs at only half-speed; so that the time which elapses between two successive ticks of the clock as judged by the stationary observer amounts to two seconds as judged by the aviator.* Likewise, to the aviator, the clock resting on the table runs at only half-speed; so that the stationary clock records for the aviator only one second while his own clock records two seconds. To each observer, the other fellow's clock seems to run behind time**

NEW LAW FOR COMPOUNDING VELOCITIES

Another startling consequence of the Special Relativity Theory is the formula which replaces the Newtonian additive law for velocities. Thus suppose a submarine chaser is traveling at the rate of u miles per hour, and a gun is fired ahead with a velocity v at a submarine. Then to a stationary observer on land, the velocity w of the projectile according to Newtonian Mechanics would be

$$w = u + v$$

According to Einstein's Special Relativity Theory, the velocity w would be given by

$$w = \frac{u + v}{1 + \frac{\quad}{c^2}} \quad \ldots (9) \; ***$$

A GENERAL SUMMARY

There follows now a summary of the principal conclusions of the Special Relativity Theory, as far as our survey has carried

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*The velocity of sound does not enter into the problem.

**Here $B = 1/\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{186{,}000}{161{,}000}\right)^2} = 2$, approximately.

***From $u_1' = \frac{x_2' - x_1'}{t_2' - t_1'}$ and $u_1 = \frac{x_2 - x_1}{t_2 - t_1}$ it is easy to derive the formula (9) written $u_1 = \frac{u_1' + v}{1 + \frac{u_1' v}{c_2}}$ from the first and fourth of equation (8).

us. Given the two systems K, K′ moving with uniform relative velocity, we may state R I as follows:

> Laws of nature run their course without change in either system.

Since, moreover, the principle of formal "invariance" is the mathematical equivalent for physical "law," RI may also be expressed:

> General laws of nature are invariant (that is, the equations expressing these laws remain formally unchanged) with respect to the Lorentz Transformation.

An analysis of equations (7) and (8) lead, as we have seen, to the following conclusions:

(a) Objects in the system of O′ appear to O to be shorter in the direction of relative motion than they appear to O′; and *vice versa.*

(b) O thinks that the clock of O′ has a slower rate than his own, so that the duration of time appears shorter to O′ than to O.

(c) Simultaneity, as well as distance and time, depends on the observer. Events which appear simultaneous to O do not in general appear simultaneous to O′, and conversely.

(d) Lengths measured at right angles to the direction of motion do not suffer contraction.

(e) These effects depend upon a certain relation between the relative velocity of the two systems and the velocity of light They increase as the relative velocity increases, and they disappear when there is no relative velocity.

(f) For ordinary velocities such even as that of the earth's velocity through space, the effects are inappreciable. For high velocities, the effects are sufficiently noticeable to be of physical importance.

(g) The observers form different estimates of the velocities of bodies in each others' systems. The velocity of light, however, seems the same to all observers.

(h) The old formula of addition of velocities is replaced by a new formula involving the velocity of light.

Suitable illustrations of these conclusions should assist the reader to a comprehension of the essential features of the Special Relativity Theory. Under Einstein's scheme, be it noted, *Geometry is reduced to Mensuration.* The observer carries his own individual yard stick with him. There is no world of "reality" behind the "shows" of observation. The only reality of relativity is the accuracy of direct physical experiment. Relativity appears to effect at last the union of Physics and Metaphysics. The paradoxical phenomena are not illusions any more than all man's acquaintance with nature is illusion.

A GROUP OF SIMPLE ILLUSTRATIONS

Let us consider (a). Imagine a super-observer in space watching the earth rush by. The earth appears to be flattened in the direction of its motion only one two hundred millionth.* This amounts to only two and a half inches. For a body the size of the earth, such an apparent contraction is, obviously, wholly inappreciable. The extraordinary feature of the phenomenon is not the magnitude, but the occurrence, of this apparent contraction.

In the case of an electron, for example, moving at the very high speed of 161,000 miles per second, the electron will appear to an observer to be only half its length. It is presumed, of course, that the instruments of observation are sufficiently refined and the observer's eyesight sufficiently acute, to enable him to make the observation. As the speed of the electron approaches that of light it changes its apparent form from spherical or ellipsoidal to a disc of excessive flatness.

Let us take the other type of case. Suppose an observer in an express train moving at the rate of 60 miles per hour observes a platform 1,000 feet long at a non-stop station. How

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*Here

$$\sqrt{1-\frac{v^2}{c^2}}=\sqrt{1-\left(\frac{18.6}{186,000}\right)^2}=1-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{1}{10,000}\right)^2=1-\frac{1}{200,000,000}$$

$$\text{Hence } 2r\left(1-\sqrt{1-\frac{v^2}{c^2}}\right)=\frac{7920}{200,000,000}\text{ miles }=\frac{7920\times 5280\times 12}{200,000,000}$$

$= 2.5$ inches.

long does the platform appear to him? The answer is, as may be easily shown, 999.999,999,999,996 feet. Conversely, if the train were 1,000 feet long and swept past the platform at the rate of 60 miles per hour, the train would appear to an idler on the platform to have the length 999.999,999,999,996 feet.*

Next let us take two illustrations of (b). Imagine an astronomer endowed with super-human eyesight observing a monster clock on Arcturus, which is moving at the rate of 700,000 miles per hour relative to the earth. He notices that the clock on Arcturus loses one twentieth of a second every twenty-four hours.

Next, suppose an aeroplane with a huge clock dial on its side passes a stationary observer at the rate of 161,000 miles per second. Then when the stationary observer's watch had marked two seconds ("tick-tock", say), the aviator's clock registered only one second ("tick"). Accordingly, as judged by the stationary observer's watch, the aviator's clock would lose twelve hours in every twenty-four.

Combining (a) and (b), for this particular illustration, we may imagine that as the aeroplane sweeps past the stationary observer, the aviator stretches out his arm in the direction of motion. Then the aviator's arm appears to the stationary observer just half as long as it ordinarily would if the aviator were at rest. Furthermore the process of extension appears to take twice as long to the stationary observer as to the aviator.

Let us take an illustration of (g), to the effect that the velocity of light seems the same to all observers. To the observer in the system K, the velocity of light c, is given by the formula $x/t = c$. Then from the first and fourth equation of (7), we have

$$\frac{x'}{t'} = \frac{B\,(ct - vt)}{B\,(t - \frac{v}{c}t)} = c$$

*The apparent length is

$$1000\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{\frac{60.5280}{60.60}}{186{,}000 \times 5280}\right)^2} = 1000\left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\,\frac{1}{12 \times 10^{13}}\right)$$

$$= 1000\,(1 - .000{,}000{,}000{,}000{,}004) = 999.999{,}999{,}999{,}996$$

Finally, let us take an illustration of (h). Suppose a high-powered gun, capable of firing a projectile at a speed of one hundred thousand miles per second, be placed at the front of an armored train moving at the same speed. If the gun were fired in the direction of advance, what would be the velocity of the projectile as reckoned by an observer standing beside the track? According to the Newtonian Mechanics, the answer is 200,000 miles per second; according to the Einstein Mechanics, 155,000 miles per second (approximately.)*

MASS INCREASES WITH VELOCITY

In conclusion, it should be pointed out that, according to the Special Relativity Theory, mass appears to increase with velocity. To give any demonstration of this principle would carry us too far afield. But an illustration or two as to the gain in mass of given velocities will enable the reader to understand precisely what are the implications of the Einstein theory. For example, suppose a body weighing one pound were sent hurtling through space at the rate of 93,000 miles per second. Its apparent increase in mass would be one-sixth of a pound, so that an observer would record its weight as 1 1/6 lbs.

A mass of 1,000 grammes will weigh 2 centigrams more when traveling at the speed of 1,000 kilometers per second; and the mass of 1,000 grammes will weigh 3,905 grammes when traveling at a speed of 290,000 kilometers per second.

SENSATIONAL BUT FUTILE PARADOXES

The paradoxical consequences of the Special Relativity Theory have been much dwelt upon. But they have only a significance of curiosity, with no practical bearing or application. For example, we know that the hands of a clock traveling away from us seem to move more slowly than the hands of the clock

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*According to Einstein's formula, $w = \dfrac{u + v}{1 + \dfrac{u\,v}{c^2}} = \dfrac{100{,}000 + 100{,}000}{1 + \dfrac{100{,}000{,}000{,}000}{34{,}596{,}000{,}000}}$

$= \dfrac{34{,}596 \times 2.10^5}{44{,}596} = 155{,}000$ m/s.

resting beside us on the table. If the moving clock were to recede from us at the rate of 300,000 kilometers per second, the clock would always record the same time, since the hands would not appear to move at all.

Again suppose an aviator recedes, at the rate of slightly more than 1,120 feet per second, which is the velocity of sound, from a clock which strikes every second. The regular intervals between tolls of the bell will gradually get longer to any one traveling away from it. The aviator will never hear the next toll after the first—since the sound wave is not moving fast enough to catch up with him. If he were to reckon time by the clock at the starting point, he would conclude that time had ceased to operate; and consequently in that very limited sense, he would always remain the same age.

These paradoxes, suggestive as they may be in stimulating the imagination, have no practical significance. They merely furnish mental pabulum for the idler and the dilettantist.

CHAPTER III

The General Relativity Theory

"Now unconfined the wings stretch out to heaven,
Nor shrink beneath a crystal firmament
Aloft into the aether's fragrant deeps,
Leaving below the earth-world with its pain,
And all the passions of mortality."

—*Giordano Bruno.*

A New Vision

Some such enhancement of our sense of what Carlyle calls the "immensities and the profundities," as is here expressed by Bruno in propounding his doctrine of the infinity of the worlds in space, comes to us in a contemplation of the majestic and beautiful structure of Einstein's General Relativity Theory. The objective world of sense-reality seems suffused with the purple haze of infinity. The blinding light of this new universe seems to filter down to us through a "dome of many-colored glass." We seem to stand insecure upon the shifting sands of change. Man's dread of the unknown, his abhorrence of uncertainty, his longing for the absolute, voice themselves in face of the universal relativity postulated by this new pioneer of thought.

A Mystic World

The signal contribution to modern thinking made by the brilliant Minkowski was to place Time on a parity with Space in the cosmic scheme; to co-ordinate them into a system; and to recognize, once and forever, that the world of space-time in which we live is a four-dimensional world. To the man-in-the-street, such a pronouncement is profoundly disquieting, shattering as it does his complacent sense-perception of external nature as a world of three dimensions. In speaking of the four-dimensional world theory of Minkowski, Einstein himself has suggestively observed: "A mystical shudder seizes the non-mathematician when a fourth dimension is spoken of, a creepy emotion, something like that produced by a stage effect. Yet there is no more obvious common-place than that our world of everyday experience is a four-dimensional space-time continuum."

Mathematical Complexities

The idea has gained currency, although Einstein himself has been at some pains to deny it, that he asserted there were not more than a dozen men in the world who are capable of understanding the General Relativity Theory. After delving into the complexities of the theory and only by the intensest mental concentration resolving the abstruse mathematical difficulties—for of course many of the physical and electrical implications of the theory still elude me—I must confess to a feeling of surprise that the number of those who are credited with the ability to understand the General Relativity Theory has been set so high as 12. There is in print no intelligible account of the General Relativity Theory which a non-mathematical reader can understand.

If you, my friend, the reader of this essay, were a mathematician, I should begin with a study of Tensor Algebra, Four-dimensional Space, Cogredient Variables, Covariant and Contravariant Vectors, the Christoffel Symbols, the Absolute Differential Calculus of Ricci and Levi-Civita, and the Space-Manifolds of Gauss, Riemann, and Beltrami. With all the dexterity of a juggler handling crystal balls, I could nonchalantly fling complicated mathematical equations and expressions across the printed page —if I merely wished to gratify my vanity by dazzling you with pretentions as to the range of my knowledge and the depth of my erudition! It is perhaps an impossible task to explain the elements of this theory in a form accessible to popular understanding. The most one can hope for is to be able to indicate the principal outlines of Einstein's towering structure—trusting that the vision thus glimpsed from afar may draw the sight-seer on to a closer inspection and perhaps a personal tour of the amazing edifice.

A Space-Time World

A four-dimensional world! Confusing, disturbing thought! And yet, in essence, simple, necessary, inevitable. From the time of Newton until today, we have thought of Time and Space as utterly separate and independent. We have all tacitly accepted the famous pronouncements of Newton regarding Time and Space as final truth:

"Absolute, true and mathematical time flows in virtue of its own nature uniformly and without reference to any external ob-

ject"; and "Absolute space, by virtue of its own nature and without reference to any external object, always remains the same and is immovable."

It was the contribution of Herman Minkowski, in his famous lecture, "Space and Time," before the Congress of Natural Philosophers at Cologne in 1908, to reveal the intimate connection between Space and Time, their indispensable dependence, and the essential four-dimensionality of the universe.

The positions in space occupied at successive times by a given material point form in four-dimensional time-space what Minkowski calls a World-Line. From the standpoint of the scientist, events are the intersections of these world-lines. A star illumines the face of a clock; and we wish to observe the occultation of the star by the moon. The world-line of a certain light-vibration starts from a point on the world-line of the star; it then intersects successively the world-lines of: a point on the moon's edge and the figure on the clock's face to which the hand points. A point-event may then be said to be found as the intersection of three world-lines. We do not know and can never know the course of world-lines between the points of intersection. We are only interested in the events themselves, which are the intersections of these world-lines. Perhaps it may help you to understand the conception of four dimensions if you will but reflect that every time you go to the movies, you witness a four-dimensional phenomenon—three dimensions in space (as seen), and one dimension in time (as reeled off). In his book, "The Time Machine," the imaginative H. G. Wells has ingeniously observed: "Here is a portrait of a man at eight years old, another at 15, another at 17, another at 23, and so on. All these are evidently sections, as it were, Three-Dimensional representations of his Four-Dimensional being, which is a fixed and unalterable thing."

A THEORY OF PRINCIPLE

Einstein has termed the theory of relativity a "theory of principle." His deep insight into natural phenomena, his power in making wide-ranging generalizations and analogies, have enabled him to formulate certain intrinsically plausible "laws" grounded in basic principles. These postulated laws or principles have then been expressed in mathematical formulas of universal va-

lidity and applicability. In order to understand the Theory of Relativity, especially the General Theory, it is absolutely essential to grasp the fundamental principles upon which it rests.

The foundation stone of the general theory is the "principle of equivalence," the most fecund of all Einstein's generalizations. It amounts to the assertion that, so far as effects are concerned, acceleration is physically interchangeable with gravitation.

The Principle of Equivalence

The story is told that Dr. Einstein hit upon his theory of gravitation as the result of a conversation with a man he had seen fall to the ground from the roof of a building in Berlin. Fortunately the man fell upon some soft material, escaping almost uninjured. In answer to Dr. Einstein's question as to how it felt to fall, the man replied that he had no sensation of downward pull at all. As the man was falling with an acceleration of thirty-two point two feet per second (figures for empty space), the idea was suggested to Einstein that this acceleration was just enough to nullify the effect of gravitation.

Let us suppose for example, that Jacob's ladder were an elevator shaft reaching from earth to heaven. If the cable part, say, at the height of the summit of Mont Blanc, the elevator with you as passenger falls vertically downward. You would at once lose all sensation of weight—because it is the pressure of the floor on your feet which ordinarily causes the sensation of weight. Now this pressure is removed, since the floor is falling as fast as you are. If you open your hand to release a coin, the coin does not fall to the floor of the elevator; it remains precisely in the same relative position to yourself. If the elevator gave no view to the outside, you could not tell whether you were falling through space, or were situated in interplanetary space where there was no gravitational field. Accordingly we are brought to the conclusion that a gravitational field may be annulled by allowing an observer to fall freely with the attendant acceleration.

Einstein's Famous Box

The difference between Einstein's and Newton's conception of gravitation may be discovered in the following description of a theoretical experiment, which I quote in Einstein's own words:

"Please imagine the earth removed, and in its place suspended a box as big as a room, or a whole house, and inside a man naturally floating in the center, there being no force whatever pulling him.

"Imagine, further, this box being, by a rope or other contrivance, suddenly jerked to one side, which is scientifically termed 'accelerated motion.' The person would then naturally reach bottom on the opposite side.

"The result would consequently be the same as if he obeyed Newton's Law of Gravitation, while in fact, there is no gravitation exerted whatever, which proves that 'accelerated motion' will in every case produce the same effects as gravitation.

"I have applied this new idea to every kind of 'accelerated motion', and have thus developed mathematical formulas which I am convinced give more precise results than those based on Newton's Theory. Newton's formulas, however, are such close approximations that it was difficult to find by observation any serious disagreement with experiments."

To elucidate this matter somewhat further, let us imagine that you are in an elevator which suddenly starts upward. You have often felt a peculiar sensation under these circumstances, namely: a sensation of increased weight. This is due to the change of motion of the elevator from rest, that is, to acceleration. As soon as the motion becomes uniform, the sensation vanishes. This phenomenon is just as if the force of gravitation were magnified, causing a sensation of increased weight. It is clear then that the upward acceleration of the elevator is in its mechanical effects precisely analogous to that caused by the addition of a gravitational field to that already acting.

PRINCIPLE OF EQUIVALENCE STATED

On the basis of these and allied observations and reflections, Einstein formulated his famous Principle of Equivalence, embodying the notion of the relativity of force:

> "A gravitational field of force is precisely equivalent in its effects to an artificial field of force introduced by accelerating the frame-work of reference, so that in any small region it is impossible to distinguish between them by any experiment whatever."

A moment's reflection will show that the Special Relativity Theory is a limiting case of this, gravity being excluded. The acceleration, being equivalent to gravity, would be nullified, since no account is taken of the action of gravity in the Special Theory; and consequently we should have the case of uniform motion or else of rest. Hence we conclude that it would be impossible to distinguish between motion in the absence of matter (that is free from gravitational effects) and uniform translatory motion.

THE LAWS OF NATURE

Mathematics is the science of symbolism for the expression of physical laws. When we use the mathematical term "invariance," we mean "law" in the domain of physics. In the Special Relativity Theory we found that the laws of nature held good when we changed, by means of the Lorentz transformation, from one system K to another system K′, moving relative to K rectilinearly with uniform velocity. Stated in mathematical language, the principle is as follows:

"General laws of nature are invariant (that is, the mathematical equations expressing them remain formally unchanged) with respect to the Lorentz transformation."

Now the Special Relativity Theory is restricted to a comparatively narrow range of phenomena—namely when two systems (such as two ships) are in uniform rectilinear (translatory) motion relative to each other. Einstein sought to derive the laws of nature for all systems of difform motion—that is, systems not having relative uniform velocity. Such systems would undergo effects of rotation and acceleration as well as velocity. Hence he set himself the following problem:

"To find the Laws of Nature, that is, to derive the equations which remain mathematically invariant under all possible transformations."

In general terms, the problem was: to find the mathematical equations which remain invariant, not merely under the Lorentz transformation alone, which covers only one group of phenomena, but under all transformations whatever.

The world, as represented in its events (of which the attainment of a position in space-time, for example, is an event of simple character) is a complex or network of coincidences of world-lines. A system of co-ordinates in four variables, three space

and one time, is a scheme—a "mental construct"—for describing the totality of such coincidences. Now suppose we introduce a set of perfectly general equations (after the analogy of the Lorentz transformation) for changing from one system of co-ordinates to another. Coincidences in the one system will remain coincidences in the other; and the problem is to discover the equations which remain invariant under this transformation.

THE GAUSSIAN SYSTEM

In the course of the investigation, it developed that the ordinarily accepted "space of three dimensions," with its Euclidean machinery, did not afford the type of transformations required by Einstein. It was necessary to find mesh-systems (that is, co-ordinate frame works) which, no matter how transformed into another mesh-system, left the formulas embodying the fundamental laws of nature unaltered. Fortunately, such a system had already been put forward more than half a century ago by Carl Friedrich Gauss; and the machinery for handling it had but recently been worked out by two Italian mathematicians, Ricci and Levi-Civita. The essential feature of the problem has been well analyzed by the great French mathematician, Poincaré.

Imagine, says Poincaré, everything in the world magnified in a certain proportion overnight. On waking up in the morning, no one would be aware of it. All our measurements would give the same results as before; the laws of nature would remain unchanged. The same thing would be true if each of the dimensions of all bodies was altered in a different ratio—all lengths doubled, all heights trebled, all widths quadrupled, for example. As our eyes would be affected along with everything else, we should be unable to detect the change. It would be as if the change had never taken place. The laws of nature would still remain unchanged. For all practical purposes, the world would be the same world as before.

A MOLLUSCAN WORLD

Another illustration may further aid our comprehension. Let us represent the mathematical history of the world—that is, the systems of all world-lines as known by their intersections (events)—as a jelly through which pass the threads of the world-lines. Now suppose we deform this jelly in any way we

please; then the intersections will still occur in the same order along each world-line, and no additional intersections will be created. The deformed jelly with the world-lines embedded therein will represent a history of the world which is just as accurate as the original figure. The laws of nature, namely the relationships of events, are unchanged—and hence are as true in one system as in the other. To deform the jelly amounts to the same thing as a mathematical transformation—that is, the change from one mesh-system to another. The General Relativity Principle requires that any and all such "mollusks," to use Einstein's term, shall be equally valid for the formulation of the general laws of nature. The laws themselves must be quite independent of the choice of mollusk.

When we effect a transformation from one set of co-ordinates to another, this means that we are seeking to view the same event from another point of view. The system we started with is now moving with acceleration in some way with reference to the new system. Thus we have introduced an artificial field of force in accelerating the original framework of reference; and consequently, by the Principle of Equivalence, we have brought it about that the point is now in motion under the influence of a gravitational field. Einstein's mathematical program, then, was as follows: first, to find a set of equations which would remain invariant under any transformation of co-ordinates; and second, to interpret the factoral quantities introduced by such transformation as components of the gravitational potential.

Using Gaussian co-ordinates, we are now in a position to rephrase Einstein's problem in General Relativity, in the following form:

> All Gaussian four-dimensional co-ordinate systems are equally applicable for formulating the general laws of physics.

EXPRESSION FOR "INTERVAL"

In this way, we are no longer limited to Euclidean geometry; nor are we restricted to rigid bodies of reference for time-space descriptions of events, as in the Special Relativity Theory. The new formulation carries the *principle of relativity*—namely *the equivalence of systems*—to complete generality. Effecting now the most general transformation upon the fundamental formula

for the *linear element*—expressing the "interval" between two point-events in four-dimensional time-space in Special Relativity —Einstein finds for the most general formula for the "interval" the following formula in four-dimensional time-space according to General Relativity:

$$ds^2 = \sum_{u,v}^{1-4} g_{uv}\, dx_u\, dx_v \quad \text{.....} (g_{uv} = g_{vu}).$$

Since the ten quantities g have been introduced by the transformation, which brings the particle within the sphere of influence of a gravitational field, it appears that these g are in some sense *gravitational potentials* determining the gravitational field. Hence we must establish a law—an intrinsic relation or set of relations among these g; and such a particular law will prove to be the *law of universal gravitation.*

THEORY OF TENSORS

Now at this point Einstein made use of the Theory of Tensors and the methods of the absolute differential calculus, which had been set up by the Italian Mathematicians, Ricci and Levi-Civita. Suppose we have a series of quantities

$$T_1 = o_1\ T_2 = o_1\ T_3 = o_1 \ldots$$

then if the "law" is to hold—viz., the invariance condition be maintained—these quantities must vanish when the transformation is made in any possible manner. Hence these quantities must obey a linear law of transformation.

$$T_1' = a_1\ T_1 + a_2\ T_2 + \ldots\ldots$$
$$T_2' = b_1\ T_1 + b_2\ T_2 + \ldots\ldots$$
$$\ldots\ldots$$

since if all the T are zero, then all the T′ will be zero. Quantities which obey such a law are called *tensors.*

EINSTEIN'S LAW OF UNIVERSAL GRAVITATION

Einstein next proceeded to find the *simplest* relations connecting the g's which would remain *invariant* under *all transformations.* The quantities then found *vanished* for the special case of quasi-euclidean time-space, as employed in the Special Relativity Theory, and were also proved to be *tensors.* Hence they must vanish under all possible transformations; and accordingly

represented the intrinsic universal law of gravitation. These equations, ten in number, are donated by the symbol:

$$G_{uv} = 0$$

GEODESIC IN TIME-SPACE

Now, following the analogy of Newtonian Mechanics in Euclidean space, according to which a particle not acted on by any forces continues forever in a straight line, Einstein postulates that a particle in four-dimensional time-space follows the *shortest possible track,* which is called a *geodesic.* This postulate is justified since for Euclidean time-space, this *geodesic,* a *curved* line in general, straightens out into a rectilinear one. We are familiar with the conception of a *geodesic* on a sphere, which is the arc of a great circle.

EINSTEIN AND NEWTON

The implications of the above statements are extraordinary and far-reaching. Perhaps the most surprising thing of all to observe is that Einstein's equations, which come from utterly different hypotheses and by entirely different means, nevertheless assume the form of Newton's equations in limiting cases, for low velocities, and to first approximations. In controverting certain sensational newspaper reports concerning the dethronement of Newton, Einstein said in an article in the London *Times*: "No one must think that Newton's great creation can be overthrown in any real sense by this or by any other theory. His clear and wide ideas will forever retain their significance as the foundations on which our modern conceptions of physics have been built." Nevertheless, Einstein's conception of the universe is radically different from Newton's; and this will now be indicated.

"RELATIVITY VS. GRAVITATION"

In the first place, Einstein's theory leads to the conclusion that *space and matter are relative.* Space depends on matter; it is impossible to think of space without matter. Under the electron theory, all matter is electro-magnetic in origin and structure. Any mass of matter gives rise to a gravitational (electro-magnetic, perhaps) field in its neighborhood; and thus sets up

a strain or warp in the surrounding aethereal medium. When a particle or light-ray enters this gravitational field, it follows its *natural track,* namely the path of a *geodesic*—in that warped time-space. This was happily hit off by some clever versifier in the lines:

A warp in nature has been found
No line is straight, no circle round;
For Isaac Newton has unsound
Ideas of gravitation.

THE CURVATURE OF TIME-SPACE

When we say that time-space is "curved," we mean that a particle entering it will deviate from a rectilinear course as the result of the warp or strain produced by the gravitational field.

"Newton thought the apple fell because the earth exerts upon it an attractive force. Einstein considers that it falls because, wherever there is matter, space itself is curved, just as is the space we see in a very slightly concave mirror, where there are no straight lines at all, and where, if any body is in motion, it must move along a curve. Suppose a man in a closed room discovers that a marble placed anywhere against a wall rolls towards a hassock in the centre of the room, it will appear to him that the hassock is attracting it. Yet the fact may be that the floor is slightly concave, like a very shallow basin, and the hassock has no connection whatsoever with the motion of the marble. Just in the same way the earth may have no direct connection with the falling of the apple, though it seems to us to be the cause of it. We are asked to believe that space is curved, that all things moving through it move in curves—all things, including light. Einstein's theory asserts that the actual reality which underlies all the manifestations we experience in the physical universe is a blend of time, space, and matter. This trinity is comprised in *one* actual reality. All bodies move through space-time; and they move in the straightest possible tracks; motion is merely simultaneous change of position in space and time.. . . On Einstein's view of gravitation, the earth moves in an elliptical path around the sun, not because a force is acting on it, but because the world of space-time is so disturbed by the presence of

the sun that the path of least time through space is the elliptical path observed. There is therefore no need to introduce any idea of 'force of gravitation.'"*

THE THREE TESTS

The most important evidence in favor of the validity of Einstein's General Relativity Theory is the fact that, to a first approximation, it gives us the Newtonian law of attraction. This is not to be explained on the grounds of accident or chance. The interpretation Einstein gives his results is fundamentally different from the interpretation Newton gave to *his* formulas.

In the effort to test the validity of his theory, Einstein picked out certain natural phenomena which lent themselves to experimentation and verification. These were, respectively, the advance of the perihelion of Mercury, the deflection of a light-ray, and the shift of the solar lines toward the red end of the spectrum.

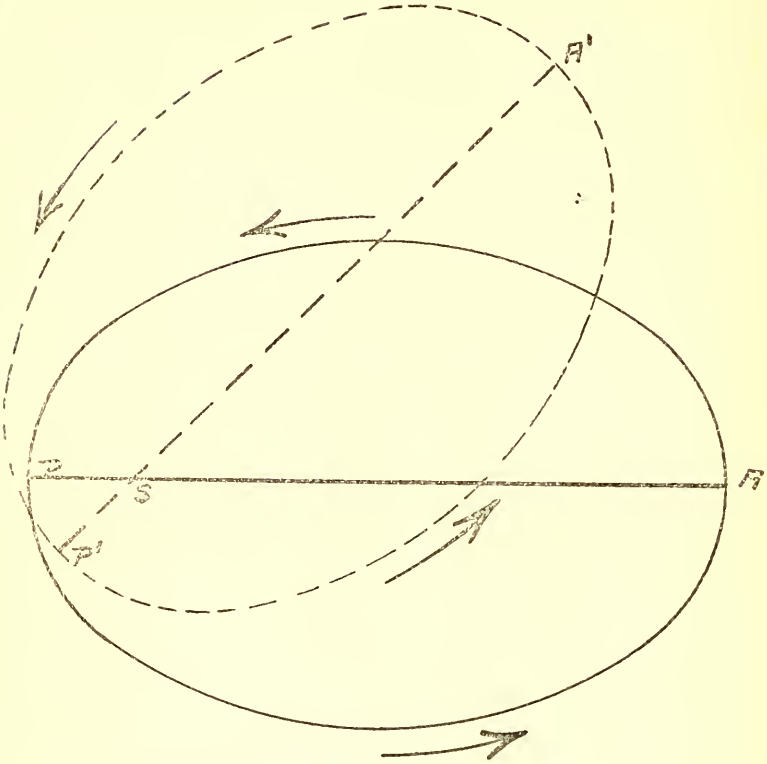
THE ADVANCE OF THE PERIHELION OF MERCURY

In 1859 Leverrier, the famous French astronomer, found from observations of Mercury that, after due allowance is made for the action of the other known bodies of the solar system, the orbit of this planet does not remain stationary, but slowly rotates about the sun as shown in the accompanying diagram.

Here P represents the "perihelion," the point of closest approach to the sun, S, located at the focus on the axis PA of the elliptical orbit. The forward motion is very slight; and for the orbit to make one complete revolution would require some thirty-three thousand centuries. According to the Newtonian theory, after all the known disturbing influences are taken account of, there remains an unexplained perihelion movement which lies somewhere between 40 and 43 seconds of arc per century. Einstein derived, by means of the General Relativity theory, the following value for the advance of the perihelion of a planet:

$$+\frac{24\pi^3 a^2}{T^2 c^2 (1 - e^2)}$$

*"The Einstein Theory" in *The Outline of Science*, volume IV. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 1922.)



The Rotation of Mercury's Orbit

Fig. 9.

On inserting the proper values for a the major semi-axis of the ellipse, e the eccentricity, c the velocity of light, and T the period of revolution, it was found that the advance of the perihelion of Mercury was almost 43 seconds of arc per century. The agreement is really remarkable in its precision; and constitutes a powerful argument in support of Einstein's theory.

THE DEFLECTION OF A LIGHT-RAY

The verification of the next test proposed by Einstein was much more spectacular. In the former test Einstein derived a formula to give a known result. In the present

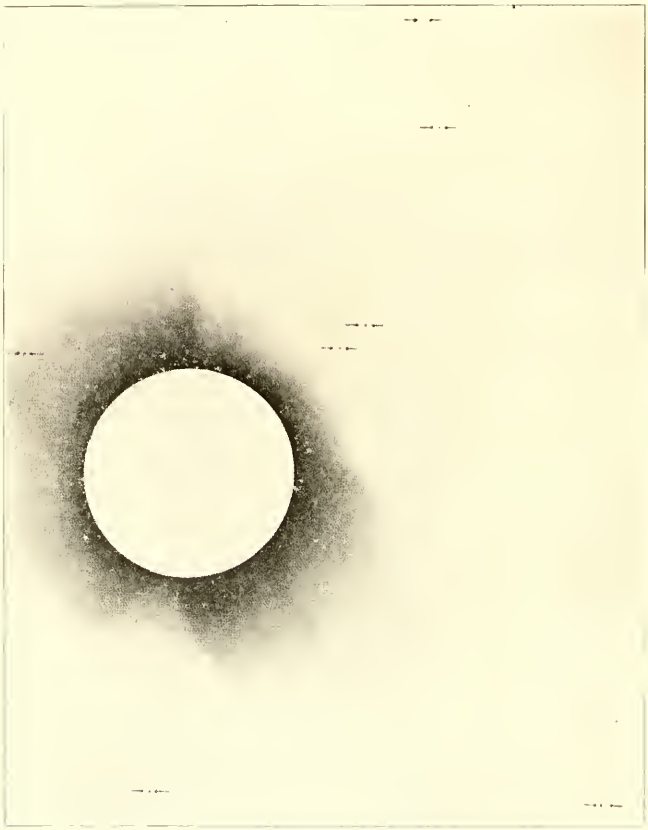


FIGURE 10

THE ECLIPSE OF THE SUN: A PHOTOGRAPH TAKEN AT SOBRAL, BRAZIL, MAY 29, 1919.

The arrows pointing to the star-images have been inserted by hand; and the star-images themselves have had to be materially strengthened in order to make them show in the engraving at all.

Photograph submitted by Dr. Alexander McAddie, Harvard University, by courtesy of the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, and the Scientific American Publishing Co., N. Y.

test, he *predicted* from his equation the amount of deflection of a light-ray from a star just grazing the limb of the sun. The theory of Newton provided for a deflection of 0.87"; so that the newspaper paragrapher who announced the result of the verification of Einstein's prediction with the headline "Light Caught Bending," was several centuries behind the times. It was not a question of the deflection of the light-ray, but of the *amount* of the deflection. No test of the matter had hitherto been made; and Einstein predicted, from the formulas of the General Relativity Theory, that the amount of the deflection would be 1."75—just twice the amount predicted by the Newtonian theory. Two expeditions were sent out by Great Britain to observe the total eclipse of May 29, 1919 (Fig. 10). According to the *Report* of the expeditions, the results regarded as reliable were as follows:

"From the seven (7) plates taken at Sobral with the 4-inch camera

1".98

with a probable error of about 0".12

From the two (2) plates taken at Principe with the 13-inch astrographic lens

1."61

with a probable error of about 0".30"

The conclusion of the committee of noted astronomers appointed to examine the plates is found in their *Report* in these words:

"Both of these results point to the full deflection 1."75 of Einstein's generalized relativity theory, the Sobral results definitely, and the Principe results perhaps with some uncertainty."*

The announcement of the result created a world-sensation. Einstein said: "The results of the measurements confirmed the theory in a thoroughly satisfactory manner."

According to W. W. Campbell, director of the Lick Observatory who headed the W. H. Croker American expedition to observe the eclipse of Sept. 29, 1922, the mean of the observations

*It should be noted that the rough mean of these seven results is 1."87 which further supports Einstein's prediction, since it falls *beyond* his value, instead of lying *between* the values 0."87 (Newton) and 1."75 (Einstein.)

exactly verified Einstein's result—rendering further observations unnecessary.

The effect is exceedingly small—corresponding to the width of a match at a distance of half-a-mile (Fig. 11). But physicists and astronomers have now invented instruments of marvellous precision for measuring the very great and the very small. The

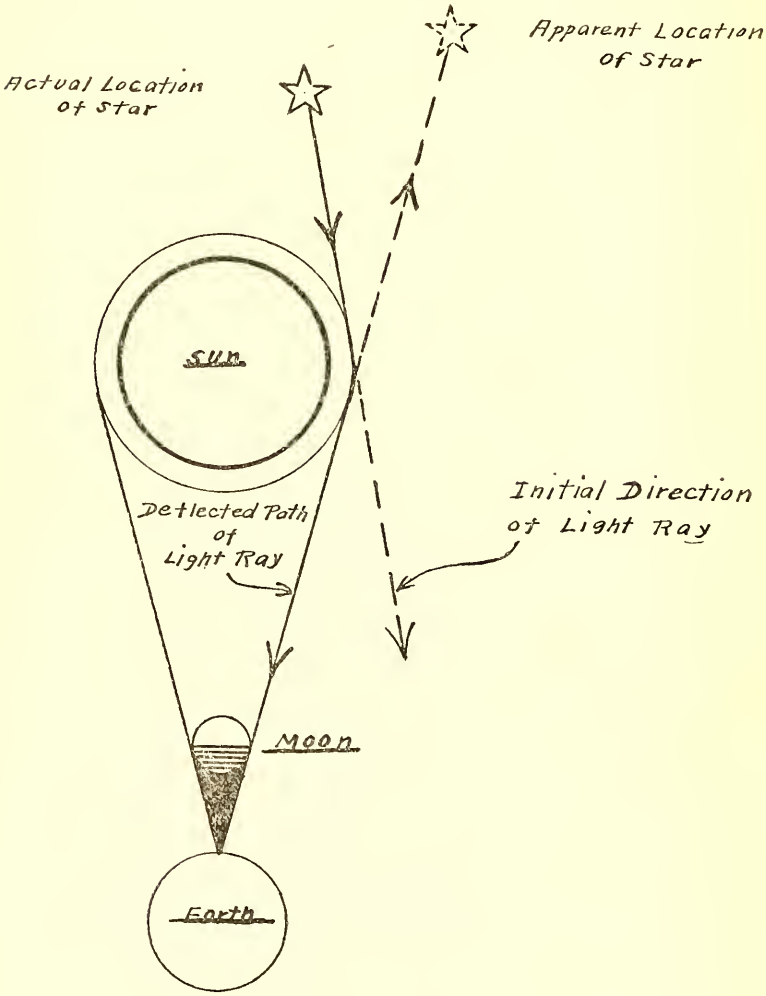


Fig. 11

deflection of a light-ray is a readily measurable quantity—indeed greater than any star-parallax, with which astronomers have long been accustomed to deal.

THE SHIFT OF SPECTRAL LINES

An exceptional interest attaches to this test. This is the case because: first, Einstein has stated that his General Relativity Theory stands or falls with the success or failure of this test; and second, the test has not yet been successfully made. In the intense gravitational field of the sun, all the spectrum lines from the sun or a star should be shifted slightly toward the red end. According to the General Relativity Theory, the light from a solar source, for example, should be of greater period and greater wave length (that is, redder) than that from a terrestrial source. This is based on the reasonable, but wholly unproved assumption, that a vibrating atom is a natural clock; and that, for example, a sodium atom on the sun is precisely like, in character and function, a sodium atom on the earth. Recent experiments by Pérot, Birge, and Grebe and Bachem, using quite different methods and assumptions, have tended to confirm the Einstein shift by observations upon the cyanogen lines. Professor Eddington tells me the test has not yet been met; but in his recently published book, Einstein says: "It can hardly be doubted that this consequence of the theory will be confirmed within the next year."*

RELATIVITY IN VERSE

After having all one's habitual notions of space and time, motion and gravitation, overturned by the Einstein theories, we can have a hearty laugh at our own bewilderment in these clever verses of Doris Estcourt:

DON'T GO TOO FAR WITH THIS RELATIVITY BUSINESS, PLEASE, DR. EINSTEIN

There's nought but relativity,
You swim with great activity
  And think that you are moving, but you're not;
If the water where you used to be
Could only be induced to be
  Where you are now you'd still be on the spot.

**The Meaning of Relativity.* Princeton University Press. 1923.

There's nothing you can count upon—
The race-horse that you mount upon
  Has greater mass when moving than when still;
A train you measured would have been
Much longer than it should have been
  If you had ridden with it down the hill.

An orange that looks round to you
Can teach this truth profound to you:
  There IS no round, no oblong and no square;
The rule you must be guided by
Is this: shape is decided by
  The rate that you are moving through the air.

Clocks noted for veracity
Will tell a time that has to be
  Divided by the square of x and y;
And rocks with no ferocity
When added to velocity
  Will come and hit you squarely in the eye.

When two bodies equidistant stand
From some point non-existent, and
  The space between is twenty minutes' time,
You may logically find yourself
A yard or two behind yourself
  In a state of high detachment that's sublime.

There's nothing that is solid nor
Particularly squalid for
  All matter is electrons—nothing more;
The chair you rest upon could be
Transmuted into energy,
  And leave you sitting flat upon the floor.

Such theories when too numerous
Are really far from humorous:
  Consider—if they really once began
On the atoms in a willow what's
To stop them making kilowatts
Of you and me to operate a fan?*

*Electrical Merchandising, Vol. 25, No. 5. March, 1921.)

A Final Survey

In conclusion, let us summarize briefly the most impressive features of the Theory of Relativity. First of all, the mathematical structure of the theory is not only beautiful and intricate, but scientifically flawless. Even were the theory to fail to meet the third test mentioned above, Relativity would still stand firm, although some minor changes in hypothesis might be necessitated. In the second place, time and space in the Einstein cosmology are now "deprived of the last vestiges of physical objectivity." Distance and duration are estimated in relation to the observer; the nature of space is not fixed, but is relative to matter. The geometry of any region is conditioned upon the nature of the gravitational field. *All* is not relative, however, since the velocity of light in empty space, in the specialized theory, is an absolute quantity; and more generally, the laws of nature constitute the Absolute in the shifting congeries of Relativity. The permanent qualities persisting amid change are the formal laws of nature, emerging from the eternally changing networks of intellectual invention. The world is the same as ever, the same as ever it was before Einstein. The explanation of it only is different.

The results of the ideas and theories advanced by Einstein are epochal and far-reaching. The effects upon all branches of science are destined to be profound. At last, phenomena in electro-dynamics, as well as in mechanics, hitherto unexplained by former theories, bid fair to be elucidated by the Theory of Relativity. The phenomena of gravitation and inertia are at last shown to be intimately bound up with the phenomena of electricity and magnetism.

The Special Relativity Theory effected the synthesis of space and time.

The General Relativity Theory effected the wider synthesis of space, time and matter.

DESCRIPTIVE BIBLIOGRAPHY

"There are two kinds of men: Those who seldom lie and those who pretend to understand the Einstein theory."

In the following brief bibliography will be cited only those books, in English, which may be readily accessible to the average reader. The best introduction to Relativity, for one who is not a mathematician, is *Einstein's Theories of Relativity and Gravitation,* being "A Selection of Material from the Essays submitted in the Competition for the Eugene Higgins Prize of $5,000." Compiled and edited, and introductory matter supplied, by T. Malcolm Bird. (Scientific American Publishing Co., Munn & Co., New York, 1921.) Certain of the essays, notably by Lyndon Bolton, the prize-winner, Professor William H. Pickering of the Harvard College Observatory, and Professor Henry Norris Russell, of Princeton University, are especially simple and informing; but the book is necessarily very repetitious. An excellent brief work is Bolton's prize essay expanded into a volume, *An Introduction to the Theory of Relativity"* (E. P. Dutton, New York. 1922), which presupposes on the reader's part nothing beyond Euclid I, 47, and simple equations; but much of the complicated parts of the general theory will be incomprehensible to the non-mathematical reader. Extraordinary in almost wholly excluding mathematics is Einstein's *Relativity, the Special and the General Theory* (Henry Holt & Co., New York. 1920), although parts of it make difficult reading. Einstein's latest work, *The Meaning of Relativity* (Princeton University Press. 1922), is a work for the mathematician; the defect of the book is that the mathematics is too condensed, the author supplying principally results, and barely sketching the details. An amusing book, flippant but well written, is E. E. Slosson's *Easy Lessons in Einstein* (Harcourt Bros. & Co., N. Y. 1920.) Charles Nordmann's *Einstein and the Universe* (Henry Holt & Co., New York. 1922), translated from the French, is a fascinating work, written by a stylist, who explains Relativity without mathematics. *Relativity for All* (Little, Brown & Co., Boston. 1922), by Herbert Dingle, is amateurish, but earnest; Benjamin Harrow's *From Newton to Einstein* (D. Van Nostrand Co., New York. 1920) is easy reading, although the author is inadequately equipped for his task; Paul Carus' *The Principle of Relativity* (Open Court Publishing Co., Chicago. 1913), is cloudy, with but few lapses into clarity;

J. H. Thirring's *The Idea of Einstein's Theory* (Robert M. McBride & Co., New York, 1922) contains some well-written chapters; and Harry Schmidt's *Relativity and the Universe* (Robert M. McBride & Co., New York, 1922), is accurate, but dull. A. S. Eddington's *Space, Time, and Gravitation* (Cambridge University Press, 1921), is a notable work, beautifully written; but exceedingly difficult reading for anyone who has not already mastered the mathematics of the subject. An excellent philosophic survey is Moritz Schlick's *Space and Time in Contemporary Physics* (Oxford University Press, New York, 1920), translated from the German. A very interesting but grossly biased work, adverse to the Einstein theories, is C. L. Poor's *Gravitation versus Relativity* (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1920). A biographical work, containing many sidelights on relativity, is Alexander Moszkowsky's *Einstein the Searcher* (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York, 1921). An excellent pamphlet, which clarifies certain obscure points in Einstein's theories, is Erwin Freundlich's *The Foundations of Einstein's Theory of Gravitation* (Cambridge University Press, 1920), translated from the German. Works essentially mathematieal or philosophical have no place in this brief bibliography. The magazines, scientific and popular, have published many articles on Relativity, a surprising number of them being trivial, dull, or vague. These titles may be found in a periodical index; their inclusion here would serve no useful purpose.

Note. For the excellent drawings illustrating this monograph, I am indebted to my colleague, M. A. Hill, Jr., instructor in mathematics.

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A PROGRAM FOR WOMEN'S CLUBS

BY DOUGALD MacMILLAN

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RECENT TENDENCIES IN THE THEATRE

EXPLANATORY NOTE

This study of some of the more recent tendencies in the theatre in America is planned as a supplement to *A Study Course in Modern Drama* prepared two years ago for the University Extension Division by Miss Elizabeth Lay. Miss Lay's course is a comprehensive survey of the modern drama from Ibsen to the date of its publication, and while it is not necessary for those studying these *Recent Tendencies* to be familiar with what has gone before it is certainly advisable. I have attempted merely to point out a few of the phases of our very complicated and robust theatrical activity of the past few years. Most of the plays offered for study have been written, or produced in America, since the War, and are, therefore, the results of movements started much earlier. A few of these plays, *The Tragedy of Nan,* for instance, are older and might have been included in previous courses, but I have thought it desirable to use them here as they illustrate points that seem to be worth considering at this time.

The lessons fall, more or less naturally, into an order that seems vaguely to show a sort of progression from the older types of dramatic work to the newest of our art forms, expressionism. This order, however, is not at all necessary to a comprehension of the various types; the lessons would be equally intelligible if reversed, though I should not advise such a proceeding. The plays are grouped, for the most part, according to type, always a dangerous method of classification; and it must be remembered that no distinct lines of demarcation can be drawn. And an attempt has been made to give an interesting variety of material.

Each lesson is divided into several parts which may be made papers or lectures by one individual but will be found more interesting and profitable if all the persons in the class are qualified to discuss the points raised intelligently. The questions involved are too new to allow anyone to be dogmatic; and it is possible to have a variety of apparently incompatible personal opinions, each of which can be substantiated, about any play in the course. Freedom of discussion should, by all means, be encouraged and will get one much farther in an appreciation of the

worth of the plays as works of art or as representatives of a type. At the end of most of the lessons suggestions as to passages for dramatic reading have been made. This reading may be done by the person who delivers the paper or leads the discussion, but if it is possible to assign the roles to different persons and read the play, making an attempt to interpret the characters dramatically, one will find that his understanding of the nature and dramatic value of the plays is greatly increased. This method calls for preparation and the cordial cooperation of a number of persons. Of course, if dramatic talent is available the readings are more entertaining and valuable. It must be remembered all the while that these modern plays were written to be seen upon the stage, not read in the drawing room, and every effort should be made to visualize the stage picture throughout.

Of the quality of the plays selected for study, little can be said. Most of them are too new for us to judge them authoritatively. Many of them are probably worth reading only as contemporary pictures of our lives and will be forgotten in a few years; some of them have real literary and dramatic value and will probably, ultimately, find their places in the repertories of great actors and in college text books. They are all, however, interesting from one point of view or another if only as samples of what has been done on our stages in the last year or two.

The goal which we have set before ourselves is indefinite enough. No one can expect of a course of this sort any tangible, practical benefits; the best that can be sought is an understanding, however superficial, of where our theatre, which is a very lively thing just now, is apparently headed. Of course, it is impossible to tell just where it will jump, but it is certainly following a few very distinct paths whose general direction can be determined by the way they have run thus far. At any rate, a study of these samples of contemporary drama, interesting as they are in themselves, will show us ourselves as we are seen by our playwrights and will enable us to take our part in appraising "The Theatre of Tomorrow" when it comes. No one knows what this theatre will be, but it will be different from the theatre of the past, and we hope that it will be better and can welcome it heartily only if we know what is going on in the Theatre of Today.

RECENT TENDENCIES IN THE THEATRE

FIRST MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: The Background

Any study of the drama of the last few years must necessarily be prefaced by a review of the development of the modern drama, beginning with Ibsen, who is generally considered the founder of modern dramatic methods and the originator of the modern social drama.

FIRST PAPER: BY.....

Subject: A REVIEW OF MODERN DRAMA ON THE CONTINENT.

a. The work of Ibsen.

b. The realistic school: Hervieu, Brieux, Strindberg, Hauptmann, and Sudermann.

c. Modern romantic drama: Maeterlinck and Rostand.

REFERENCES:

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SECOND PAPER: BY.....

Subject: ENGLISH DRAMA.

a. The work of Jones, Pinero, and Wilde.

b. Shaw and Galsworthy.

c. The Irish movement.

REFERENCES:

Chandler, F. W.: *Aspects of Modern Drama.*

Lewisohn, L.: *The Modern Drama.*

Andrews, Charleton: *The Drama Today.*

Dickinson, T. H.: *The Contemporary Drama of England.*

Note:

In this lesson no attempt should be made to study in detail the work of any of the dramatists mentioned; rather should one try to get a comprehensive view of the most important facts and tendencies that have caused the development of recent drama.

SECOND MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: A New Conception of Tragedy

Subject: JOHN MASEFIELD'S THE TRAGEDY OF NAN

Tragedy has been thought of as the struggle of an essentially noble character against an inexorable fate, an unyielding environment, or a "tragic flaw" within himself; and the ruin or failure of this character is due to one of these forces. Mr. Masefield, regarding previous definitions of tragedy as inadequate to the expression of the meaning of modern tragedy, has redefined the term and illustrated his definition in *The Tragedy of Nan.* In his preface to the play he says, "Tragedy at its best is a vision of the heart of life. The heart of life can only be laid bare in the agony and emulation of dreadful acts. The vision of agony, or spiritual contest, pushed beyond the limits of the dying personality, is exalting and cleansing. It is only by such a vision that a multitude can be brought to the passionate knowledge of things exulting and eternal." (*The Tragedy of Nan,* New York, 1919, p. 3.)

Study the play, the plot, the characters, and discover how it illustrates this definition. The author is primarily a poet. What effect does this fact have on the interpretation of tragedy and of life? Notice the simplicity and vividness of the closing scene. What is the quality of the words used? What effect is the author trying to produce?

REFERENCES:

Current Literature: 52:710-12, June, 1912.

Living Age: 274:778-84, Sept. 28, 1912.

READ:

Act III, from Drew's exit, "Mrs. P.'E.'s gone at last . . . "

SECOND PAPER: BY.....

Subject: ST. JOHN ERVINE'S JOHN FERGUSON.

St. John Ervine says of *John Ferguson,* "My belief that any sincerely written play, however gloomy it may be, will gain the support of the general public, provided that it does not disgust them with their kind and bears a clear and indisputable relationship to human life, is supported by my experience of the reception given in America to *John Ferguson.*" And, "*John Fer-*

guson is a tragic play, but I think I may claim that it is not a depressing play. It does not disgust with humanity those who read it or see it performed. An audience should leave a theatre, after seeing a tragedy, in a state of pride . . . proud that they are human and of the same species as the tragic figures; and it is interesting to find that tragedy has been the main force of the Heroic Ages."

This play, like *The Tragedy of Nan,* is gloomy and ironic. In spite of its melodramatic qualities it contains much that is truly fine and in the highest sense tragic.

Is *John Ferguson* another example of the type of modern tragedy defined by Masefield? Study the play with this question in mind. Why was this play a great success when it was produced by the Theatre Guild? Is it a great play? Has it real dramatic or literary worth? Does the element of chance in the catastrophe mar the ending? Analyze the most important characters.

References:

Living Age: 305:45-50, April 30, 1920.
Nation: 108:842-3, May 24, 1919.

THIRD MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: Two Social Plays

Though the "problem play," so popular twenty years ago, is rapidly disappearing from the American stage, plays dealing with social problems will always find a place on the boards, if for no other reason than that they make a timely appeal. The two plays here presented are on the same general theme, marriage and divorce, or to be more exact, getting married and staying married.

First Paper: By.....

Subject: Clemence Dane's A Bill of Divorcement.

The play raises two questions: Should a woman be allowed to remarry after divorce? And, should a person marry with the knowledge that he has defects that will probably be inherited by coming generations? Miss Dane presents answers to both questions.

a. The situation.
b. The questions.
c. The answers.
d. The characters.

Sydney represents the woman of tomorrow, but she has qualities of the woman of all time. Is her sacrifice necessary? Where is her conflict with Miss Fairfield?

REFERENCES:

New Republic: 29:130, Dec. 28, 1921.
Current Opinion: 72:199-209, Feb. 1922.

SECOND PAPER: BY.....

Subject: THE CIRCLE BY W. SOMERSET MAUGHAM.

The Circle is an amusing, comic satire on English life. Its chief excellence is in the dialogue and in the delightful characterization of the three old people, "the triangle" of some social play put before us after thirty years.

a. The comedy and the circle in the plot.
b. The cleverness of the plot and the brilliance of the dialogue.
c. Analysis of the characters with particular emphasis on Lady Kitty, Lord Porteus, and Champion-Chency.
d. Is the play to be taken seriously at all? If so, what is its social philosophy?

REFERENCES:

New Republic: 28:161, Oct. 5, 1921.
Nation: 113:356, Sept. 28, 1921.
Review: 5:275, Sept. 24, 1921.

READ:

Acts II and III if there is time, or selected scenes.

FOURTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: Successful Comedies

Among the most successful plays of the past year are: *The Dover Road, Six Cylinder Love* and *Dulcy*. They represent interesting, if divergent, types of comedy.

First Paper: By.....

Subject: The Plays of A. A. Milne.

a. Satire of English life. Contrasts in tone with that of *The Circle.*

b. *Mr. Pim Passes By,* Milne's first success in America.

c. *The Truth About Blayds,* satire of hero worship, and *The Great Broxopp,* satire of success.

d. *The Dover Road* satirizes the triangle.

e. General tone of all.

References:

Current Opinion: 70:775-84, June, 1921 (Excerpts from *Mr. Pim Passes By.*)

Review: 4:280, March 23, 1921.

Independent: 108:41-3, Jan. 14, 1922.

Arts and Decoration: 16:278-9, Feb. 1922.

New Republic: 30:198-9, April 12, 1922.

Independent: 108:339-42, May, 1922.

Read:

The Dover Road, Act III.

Second Paper: By .....

Subject: Six Cylinder Love and Dulcy.

a. Pictures of American Life.

b. The plots. Are they original? Convincing?

c. The characters. Are they truly and forcefully drawn? Which are well done?

d. Account for the popularity of these plays.

References:

New Republic: 28:23, August 31, 1921.

Theatre Mazagine: 34:234, October, 1921.

FIFTH MEETING

Date..... Plate.....

General Topic: Drinkwater's Biographical Plays

First Paper: By.....

Subject: Abraham Lincoln.

One of the most discussed plays of recent years is Drinkwater's *Abraham Lincoln.* At the time of its presentation in the United States a war was waged among the critics as to whether

or not it was a great play, whether it was a true representation of the central character, whether it was a travesty on American character perpetrated rather through ignorance than malice. The play was "successful" and the controversy raged for many months. Much depends, of course, upon the qualifications, physical and temperamental, of the actor who plays the title role.

There are two points to be considered. First, is the play itself a good play? Are the characters real and true? Is the interest maintained justly by means of the characters and the situation or is it an interest fostered unjustly by a sentimental appeal to the emotions? This question involves the answer to the problem of how much the drama must appeal to the intellect. The second controversial point centers around the truth of the representation of the character of Lincoln. Whether the author of an historical or chronicle play is to be held within the bounds of actual fact, and how closely, are the questions that must be decided before *Abraham Lincoln* can be considered seriously. The question, then, becomes one of interpretation. Is Drinkwater's Lincoln a representation true to the spirit, if not to the letter of the original? It must be remembered that in the play we have Americans seen from an English point of view.

a. Study the play carefully and try to form an unbiased opinion of its worth.

b. The characters. Are the minor characters well drawn? Notice the cabinet meeting in Scene IV. The chief point to consider is, of course, the character of the hero.

c. What is the value of the choruses?

d. The author's purpose. What is he trying to do, and how well has he succeeded? Read scenes to illustrate your points.

REFERENCES:

Literary Digest: 61:28-9, June 28, 1919.
Living Age: 300:623-6, March 8, 1919.
304:790-2
310:493-4
Review: 1:710-11, Dec. 17, 1919.
Nation: 110:858-9, Jan. 3, 1920.
Bookman: 50:551-5, Feb., 1920.

Second Paper: By.....

Subject: Mary Stuart.

In *Mary Stuart* one finds a presentation of an entirely different type of historical character. The play is apparently written to justify the conduct of the unfortunate queen.

a. Analyze the characters of the four leading persons in the play.

b. What is the philosophical content of the play?

c. What is the reason for the intrusion of the story of Mary Stuart into a modern framework? Does this "frame" strengthen or weaken the effectiveness of the play?

d. The strength and weakness of the play. Is it, as a whole, convincing?

e. Compare the play with *Abraham Lincoln.*

References:

Living Age: 309-423-5, April 6, 1921.

New Republic: 26:162, April 6, 1921.

SIXTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: Romantic Biography

Our reaction against realism in the theatre has caused us not only to seek refuge in expressionism and fantasy but also to revert to the romantic costume play, so called, as a means of escape from the sordidness of naturalism.

First Paper: By.....

Subject: Phillip Moeller: *Molière, a Romantic Play.*

This is a fascinating representation of the greatest French playwright.

a. The charm of the picture of France and its theatre under Louis XIV.

b. The character of Moeller's Molière.

References:

Current Opinion: 66:295-9, May, 1919.

Read:

Act III, from "*Molière:* I have seen too much." p. 141.

SECOND PAPER: BY.....

Subjct: SACHA GUITRY: *Deburau.*

Deburau is the story of another great French actor. Its author is one of the best known of contemporary continental playwrights.

a. The Guitrys and their influence in the French theatre.
b. *Deburau,* its plot and characters.
c. The poetic qualities of Granville Barker's translation.

REFERENCES:

Literary Digest: 66:31-2, July 10, 1920.
Living Age: 306:32-4, July 3, 1920.
314:243-4, July 22, 1922.
New Republic: 27:51, June 8, 1921.
Weekly Review: 4:39-40, Jan. 12, 1921.

READ:

Act. IV, pp. 56-62 (Mantle's version.)

SEVENTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: Historical Pageants

As an outgrowth of the patriotism revived by the war, there has recently been a revival of interest in historical pageants in the United States. These pageants serve the purpose of celebrating our past greatness and of allowing the expression of a community spirit, the result of interest in a common cause and reverence for a common tradition. The pageant, because of its size and the looseness of its construction, allows many persons to participate in one activity, and forces a closer relationship among people from various spheres of the life of a community. This is particularly true when the pageant is written by several persons in collaboration and produced through native effort, though it is more apt to be good as literature or drama if it is the work of one person.

FIRST PAPER: BY.....

Subject: THE PAGEANT AND ITS PLACE IN COMMUNITY LIFE.

a. What is a pageant?

b. Some examples:

MacKaye, Percy: *St. Louis, a Civic Masque*
Stevens, T. W.: *Missouri 100 Years Ago*
Baker, G. P.: *The Pilgrim Spirit*

c. The place of the pageant in community life.

References:

Outlook: 107:515-6, July 4, 1914.
World's Work: 28:389-99, August, 1914.
Review of Reviews: 50:187-93, August, 1914.
Literary Digest: 49:152-3, July 25, 1914.
Outlook: 128:697-8, August 31, 1921.
Weekly Review: 5:163-4, August 30, 1920.

Second Paper: By .....

Subject: Some Recent Pageants in North Carolina.

a. Koch, F. H.: *Raleigh, the Shepherd of the Ocean.*
(Produced at Raleigh, October, 1920.)
The work of one man. Unity obtained by means of the central figure, Raleigh himself, and the Spirit of Youth. Vivid pictures of Elizabethan life, and forceful, dramatic portrayal of a great character.

b. Several community pageants.
(Any one or all of these may be studied.)
Our Heritage (Rocky Mount, 1919).
The Spirit of the Roanoke.
A Pageant of the Lower Cape Fear (Wilmington, 1921).
Study: The form of these pageants. Nature of the incidents used to form episodes. Methods of securing unity. Have these pageants any literary or dramatic value? Are they in any way worth while?

Read:

Raleigh, Episode III.

EIGHTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: Folk Drama

The movement to produce a drama indigenous to America has given rise to a new dramatic *genre*, if it may be called so, known as Folk Drama, and among the popular plays of recent

years certain folk-plays stand out prominently. Attempts to define the term fail, but certain plays illustrate the qualities of this type which is becoming more significant and more prominent each season.

FIRST PAPER: BY .....

Subject: THE CHARACTERISTICS OF FOLK DRAMA, a critical examination of a few folk-plays.

a. Types of characters
b. Nature of plots
c. Sincerity and naturalness
d. Beauty
e. Power; whence derived?

Material for this should be got from a study of the following plays:

The Irish folk-plays of Synge, Yeats, and Lady Gregory. (cf. Lewisohn: *The Modern Drama,* pp. 264-76; and Chandler: *Aspects of Modern Drama,* pp. 233-67.)

The plays of St. John Ervine, particularly *John Ferguson* and *Mixed Marriage.*

Eugene O'Neill's *Beyond the Horizon.*

This study reveals in the plays certain common qualities which we may call the characteristics of the folk-play:

1. Simplicity and naturalness.
2. Beauty with tragic gloom, or picturesqueness with comic characterization.
3. Force of characterization and dialogue.
4. The sources of all of these are in the lives and thoughts of unsophisticated people.

SECOND PAPER: BY .....

Subject: ANNA CHRISTIE BY EUGENE O'NEILL.

Examine *Anna Christie* with a view to determining its relation to folk-plays in general and to O'Neill's earlier play, *Beyond the Horizon,* and with special attention to the following elements of drama:

a. Characters
b. Plot
c. Dialogue
d. Philosophical content

The play is not pleasant: it is not designed for presentation in a girls' school or in the parlor; but it is a vital, forceful representation of a side of life that is real and that exists for those who will see it. The question for us to decide is not whether O'Neill ought to have shown us this side of life, but whether he has shown it to us truly and sincerely. The answer can be got only after a careful, sympathetic study of the three characters whose passions are the play.

References:

New Republic: 59:20, Nov. 30, 1921.

Independent: 107:236, Dec. 3, 1921.

Read:

Acts III and IV (Mantle's condensed version.)

NINTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: Folk-Plays in North Carolina

The work of the Carolina Playmakers in producing native folk-plays of North Carolina life and tradition has attracted considerable attention in the last few years. The Playmakers write and produce their own plays in Chapel Hill, the seat of the University of North Carolina, and each year go on tour to other parts of the State where they are received with genuine enthusiasm.

These plays, with some of O'Neill's, are perhaps the best representatives of folk drama in America.

First Paper: By .....

Subject: The Carolina Playmakers.

a. Organization and purpose

b. The folk materials in North Carolina

c. The Playmakers' efforts to present this material

d. The worth of their efforts as interpretations of North Carolina life.

References:

Survey Graphic: July, 1922, p. 436.

Drama: 13:51, November, 1922.

Theatre Magazine: October, 1922. pp. 245-6.

New York Times, Magazine Section, December, 1922.
Koch, F. H.: Editor *Carolina Folk-Plays* (Introduction) New York (Holt), 1922.

SECOND PAPER: BY .....

Subject: THE PLAYS (*Carolina Folk-Plays,* F. H. Koch, Editor.)

The five published plays of The Carolina Playmakers should be studied. Each one represents a type of folk-play, and together they show the wide range of materials that one can draw from in writing plays of North Carolina life.

"The emotions portrayed are universal and simple, crude but seldom farcical. In the first and best play, 'When Witches Ride,' the author creates out of a simple folk superstition an authentic and comprehensible tragedy in the character of Phoebe and suggests it in that of Jake. The next two plays, 'Peggy' and 'Dod Gast Ye Both,' are more melodramatic, made up of cruel landlords and philandering sons, sacrificed young girls, and moonshiners and 'revenooers'. 'Off Nags Head' and 'The Last of the Lowries have again the actual emotion and potential dramatic depths that gave value to 'When Witches Ride.'

"In spite of their naturally amateurish melodrama, the plays live and give the sense of a vital artistic instinct back of them, seeking expression. They portray sentimental emotions with a poignant simplicity which bites through to the sentimentality that lives in us all, however brutally we have disciplined it with our sophistication and scorn.

"One gets to these plays a straight intelligible response, which is more than can be said for certain Broadway successes. All of which proves that the preservation of what man loses as he becomes sophisticated and unsuperstitious may one day become an invaluable, as well as an interesting and artistic, record for him." (*The Literary Review* of the *N. Y. Evening Post,* Dec. 30, 1922.)

a. The poetry and superstition in *When Witches Ride*
b. The reality and the tragedy of *Peggy*
c. The truth of characterization and the comedy of *Dod Gast Ye Both*
d. The treatment of legend in *Off Nags Head*

e. *The Last of the Lowries,* another dramatization of somewhat legendary matter. The center of tragic interest in Cumba.

Read:

Any one of the plays that appeals to the interests of the group: *When Witches Ride* and *Peggy* are suggested as having dramatic intensity and good character parts for those who read well.

TENTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: Fantasy

Our contemporary fantasy is of two general sorts, that derived more or less directly from the *commedia dell' arte* and that, which we may call fantasy for want of a better term, represented by the plays of Lord Dunsany.

First Paper: By .....

Subject: The Commedia dell' arte

A short account of the nature and history of this dramatic form, once so popular, with particular attention to its picturesqueness and its conventional characters, should be presented.

Reference:

Smith, Winifred: *The Commedia Dell' Arte,* New York, (Columbia University Press, 1912.)

Second Paper: By .....

Subject: The Harlequinade By Dion Clayton Calthrop and Granville Barker.

In this play we find the conventional characters who were ever present on the stage for so many generations. It represents the spirit of comedy through the ages.

Read aloud all or parts of it.

Third Paper: By .....

Subject: Prunella, or Love in a Dutch Garden, By Lawrence Housman and Granville Barker.

There is little to be said about this charming descendant of the *commedia dell' arte.* Read it to enjoy its poetry and lovely sentimentality.

Read aloud as much of it as there is time for.

ELEVENTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: Satiric Fantasy

Lord Dunsany has been called a modern dreamer. The scenes of most of his plays are laid in a country of his own imagining. Here the persons of his fancy do fantastic things but with such truly human motives and passions that one can see in them a satire of our own world, satire which is keen at times but seldom bitter and frequently so covered by delightful romance that one hardly knows whether he is being laughed at or not; and throughout it all, though the smile of the author is usually apparent, the verisimilitude is maintained and an intense, almost too intense, seriousness is preserved. The language of the plays, simple and poetic and powerful, is always worth noticing.

FIRST PAPER: BY .....

Subject: DUNSANY'S EARLIER PLAYS.

All of the plays in *Five Plays* and in *Plays of Gods and Men* should be read. The following topics should be discussed:

a. The language

b. The scenes

c. The characters. How are they portrayed? Is there any individualization? Are they less real than characters in realistic plays? Why do they impress one?

d. The plots. On what are they based? Are they original? Unique? Do they hold the attention? Why?

e. The general atmosphere. Where is the chief center of interest?

REFERENCES:

Bookman: 50:537-42, February, 1920.
Living Age: 310:531-2, August 27, 1921.
New Republic: 18:152, March 1, 1919.

READ:

One of the plays. *The Gods of the Mountain, A Night At An Inn,* or *The Tents of the Arabs* is suggested.

Second Paper: By .....

Subject: If.

If shows us what would happen if we lived our lives over again. In it a man is given a chance to go back ten years and catch a train that he missed. It is very effective on the stage. How do the contrasts aid in this effectiveness? What is the effect of the grotesqueness of the situation? Are there any symbolic elements in the play? How is it like, and how unlike O. Henry's *Roads of Destiny*? What is the thesis, the philosophical idea, contained in *If*? Can you regard the play as wholly fantastic or wholly serious?

TWELFTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: The New Stagecraft

Much has been written about "the new movement in the theatre," and of this, naturally, a great deal is vague theory, some is buncombe, and more, perhaps, an honest effort to analyze existing conditions, discover where we are, and attempt to point the path for us to follow. The new movement has been going on for about twenty-five years and many things have been accomplished, chiefly in the field of stagecraft. We can try only to get a general idea of the purpose and scope of the movement by studying the work of a few men, as well as this is possible at second hand.

First Paper: By .....

Subject: Gordon Craig and the Plastic Stage.

a. The beginnings of the new movement

b. The work of Gordon Craig and its effects.

References:

Cheney, Sheldon: *The New Movement in the Theatre.* New York, 1914. Chapters I, V, and XI.

Macgowan, Kenneth: *The Theatre of Tomorrow,* New York, 1921. Chapters I, VI, and VII.

Craig, Edward Gordon: *On the Art of the Theatre,* Chicago, 1911.

The Theatre—Advancing, Boston, 1920.

Towards a New Theatre, New York, 1913.

SECOND PAPER: BY .....

Subject: STAGECRAFT TODAY.

a. Its object

b. Some recent accomplishments

c. The work of Norman-Bel Geddes, Robert Edmund Jones, Hermann Rosse, and others.

REFERENCES:

Macgowan, Kenneth: *The Theatre of Tomorrow.*
Arts and Decoration: 17:110-11, June, 1922.
Bookman: 56:142-6, October, 1922.
Current Opinion: 66:301-2, May, 1919.
71:474-6, Oct., 1921.
International Studio: 68:15-18, July, 1919.
New Republic: 23:122-4, June 23, 1920.
Theatre Arts Magazine: 5:148-56, April, 1921.
6:191-9, July, 1922.
(Other issues of *Theatre Arts Magazine* will be found useful. They contain illuminating pictures of sets.)

THIRTEENTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: The Theatre Guild

Among recent theatrical activities The Theatre Guild holds a prominent place. It has produced in New York in the rather poorly equipped Garrick Theatre during the last few years a number of thoroughly worth-while plays, and each season it has fostered one or more popular successes. The guild is not a highbrow organization, attempting to reform the theatre, but a group of artists, actors and others closely connected with the theatre, who desire to produce first of all good plays which have real literary and dramatic worth. The success of the Guild ventures is proof that the playgoing public will support, and enjoy, good plays well acted and properly staged and produced.

FIRST PAPER: BY .....

Subject: THE THEATRE GUILD AND SOME OF ITS SUCCESSES.

a. Organization and purpose of the Guild

b. Types of plays produced

c. Tone and general quality of the productions
d. The effect of the Guild on our theatre

References:

Literary Digest: 63:33, Nov. 1, 1919.
Theatre Arts Magazine: 5:268-74, Oct., 1921.
Literary Digest: 73:30-1, April 1, 1922.
New Republic: 30:80-1, March 15, 1922.

Second Paper: By .....

Subject: He Who Gets Slapped, By Leonid Nikolayvic Andreyev.

(Produced by the Theatre Guild, January 9, 1922.)

This play is called a tragi-comedy. It is a strangely appealing mixture of comedy and tragedy, of seriousness and frivolity, of reality and fancy, of philosophical depth and sentimentality.

In your analysis of the play find and discuss these elements. They all center, more or less, in the character of "He," which must be carefully studied. Is it conventional or is it original? Is it real? Is "He" a typical, conventional philosopher? Is he real? What does "He" represent, if anything? What is the value of placing him in such apparently ill-suited surroundings? Notice that the plot of the play is implied but never fully expressed.

References:

Independent: 108:90-2, Jan. 2, 1922.
New Republic: 29:283-4, Feb. 1, 1922.

Read the following passages: (Page references to Mantle's *Best Plays of 1921-22.*) Act II, p. 144 ("Consuelo—It's all so sad . . .")—p. 147 ("What comes after?"); Act III, p. 152 ("Cons.—Hello 'He' ")—end of act. Act IV, pp. 156-162.

FOURTEENTH MEETING

Date..... Place.....

General Topic: Expressionism

Expressionism, like many forms of art, is difficult to define. It includes cubism and those parts of post-impressionism which do not strive for representation. "The term is a convenient blanket designed to cover all those methods in modern painting

which substitute the formal expression of the artist's emotion for a representation of the object that may have aroused it." * "Summed up, the expressionist attempts to express his emotion through pictorial means independent of the physical reality of the object pictured or its spiritual impression."*

*Macgowan, Kenneth: *The Theatre of Tomorrow,* N. Y., 1921, p. 112. **Ibid.,* p. 113.

This is expressionism as a tendency in art. How is it applied in the theatre and how illustrated in the two plays which we consider? Both plays show the effect of a single, relatively trivial incident on the life of the leading character.

FIRST PAPER: BY.....

Subject: THE EXPRESSIONISTIC IDEAL.

a. Expressionism in art in general

b. Its application to and effect on the theatre arts in scenery, acting, and playwriting

c. The future of expressionism. Toller's *Masse Mensch.*

REFERENCES:

Macgowan, Kenneth: *The Theatre of Tomorrow,* Chapters VIII and XVII.

Arts and Decoration: 17:380-2, Sept., 1922.

Theatre Arts Magazine: 6:127-37, April, 1922.
6:267-75, October, 1922.

SECOND PAPER: BY.....

Subject: THE HAIRY APE.

This was New York's first expressionistic play. *"The Hairy Ape* is expressionist in form because the author deliberately subordinates plausibility of language or situation to the need of making life clear." (Kenneth Macgowan, *Theatre Arts Magazines* 6:187, July, 1922.)

Study the play, which is entirely the reaction of the leading character to a stimulus. It shows the struggle of a man who cannot express his desires so that others can understand him, or them.

Read aloud passages to illustrate your points.

REFERENCES:

New Republic: 30:112-3, March 22, 1922.

Theatre Arts Magazines 6:187-9, July, 1922.

Third Paper: By.....

Subject: From Morn to Midnight, By Georg Kaiser.

This play was translated from the German by Ashley Dukes for the Theatre Guild, and originally presented at the Garrick Theatre, May 21, 1922. First published in Germany in 1916.

It is one of the best examples of German expressionism. The play is non-representational, symbolical.

"*From Morn to Midnight* is a bizarre piece that breaks far too many dramaturgic idols for popularity here and now, yet it is unquestionably filled with a very intense sense of the deep emotional background against which life passes. Kaiser has succeeded in getting past the surface of reality. He has penetrated the basic stratum of man's psyche. To do this, I take it, is the purpose of expressionism." (Macgowan: *The Theatre of Tomorrow.* 1921. p. 261.)

"In this dizzying, swirling rush the dialogue is all important; sentences are short, curt, vehement; the cashier's long monologue in the snowfield fails to check the impetus. No ordinary soliloquy this, but a frantic brain given voice:

. . . . . .

"Cryptic phrasing constantly more tense, turbulent, passionate, until disaster triumphs, and Life the derisive, content, shrugs his shoulders, leaves the theatre, and the curtain is rung down. For man, unmasked, has been proved a beast, and his exultant faith, hypocrisy." (Ben Lucien Bowman, in *The Literary Review* of the *New York Evening Post,* Feb. 3, 1923.)

Study the play:

a. Form. Graphic, telling scenes, creating a series of vivid impressions and expressing the reactions of the cashier to simple incidents.

b. Content. Wherein is the tragedy? What does the play mean? It is symbolical. What attitude toward life is reflected?

References:

Nation: 114:725, June 14, 1922.

New Republic: 31:189-90, July 12, 1922.

TERMS FOR THE COURSE

The registration fee for the course, RECENT TENDENCIES IN THE THEATRE, is $10.00, for which ten copies of the program and one copy of Mantle's *The Best Plays of 1921-22* are supplied. The other plays and references necessary will be loaned to each club while the members are engaged in preparing their papers. Under no circumstances will papers for clubs be written by this section, for in so doing the purpose of offering an opportunity for original work would be defeated. Typewritten articles sent are NOT intended to be read as club papers. They are copied from books and magazines that cannot be taken from the Library Building.

Members of clubs not registered for this course will be charged twenty-five cents in addition to the postage for the loan of material called for in any paper for this program.

Additional copies of the program are fifty cents each.

Additional copies of Mantle's *The Best Plays for 1921-22* may be bought for $2.00 each, and the other books at the publishers' prices which will be supplied on request.

THE LOAN OF BOOKS

Material for this course will be loaned by the Extension Division upon the following terms: The club must first register and pay the required fee, or individual members must pay twenty-five cents for each request. The secretary should order material at least two weeks before they are to be used. Requests for books by return mail will be attended to, but no guarantee is made that they will reach their destination in time to be of use.

Books and other material must be returned within two weeks from date received. The club is subject to a fine of five cents a day on each package kept over two weeks. Upon request, the time on books will be extended one week, provided the club registration number and the date stamped in book are given.

Transportation charges both ways are borne by the club

Address all correspondence concerning this program to:

WOMEN'S CLUB SECTION,
BUREAU OF PUBLIC DISCUSSION,
University Extension Division,
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TEXTS AND REFERENCES

Most of the plays offered for study in this course are found in Burns Mantle's *The Best Plays of 1921-22.* The others are published separately. The names are given in the list which follows.

Critical comment on the plays is found in the form of reviews of them, at the time of their presentation, in various periodicals, reference to which is made at convenient points throughout the course. These critical opinions are illuminating but are not essential to a profitable study of the subjects of the course. Provided one can trust his own judgment with regard to the plays, he need not refer to them.

List of plays not found in *The Best Plays of 1921-22.*

Masefield, John: *The Tragedy of Nan.* N. Y. (MacMillan) 1919.

Ervine, St. John: *John Ferguson.* N. Y. (MacMillan) 1920.

Drinkwater, John: *Abraham Lincoln.* Boston. (Houghton Mifflin) 1919. (Also in Dickinson: *Chief Contemporary Dramatists,* Second Series.)
Mary Stuart. ibid, 1921.

Guitry, Sacha: *Deburau.* Mantle: *Best Plays of 1920-21.*

Moeller, Philip: *Molière.* N. Y. (Knopf) 1919.

Mackaye, Percy: *Saint Louis, a Civic Masque.* N. Y. (Doubleday, Page) 1914.

Stevens, T. W.: *Missouri 100 Years Ago.* The St. Louis, Missouri, Centennial Association, 1921.

Baker, G. P.: *The Pilgrim Spirit.* Boston. (Marshall Jones) 1921.

Koch, F. H.: *Raleigh, the Shepherd of the Ocean.* Raleigh, N. C. (Edwards and Broughton, Printers) 1920.

Historical pageants published privately at places of their presentation.

Carolina Folk-Plays, F. H. Koch, Ed. N. Y. (Holt) 1922.

Calthrop, D. C., and Barker, G.: *The Harlequinade.* Boston, (Little, Brown) 1922.

Housman, L., and Barker, G.: *Prunella. ibid.* 1918.

Dunsany, Lord: *Five Plays.* Boston. (Little, Brown) 1917.
Plays of Gods and Men. Boston. (Jno. W. Luce) 1917.
If. N. Y. (Putnam's) 1922.

Andreyev, L. N.: *He Who Gets Slapped.* Tr. by Gregory Zilborg. N. Y. (Brentano's) 1922.

O'Neill, Eugene: *The Hairy Ape.* N. Y. (Boni and Liveright) 1922.

Kaiser, Georg: *From Morn to Midnight.* Tr. by A. Dukes. N. Y. (Brentano's) 1922.

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UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA EXTENSION BULLETIN

AGRICULTURAL GRAPHICS:

NORTH CAROLINA AND THE UNITED STATES

1866-1922

By H. R. SMEDES

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA PRESS
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University of North Carolina Extension Bulletin

AGRICULTURAL GRAPHICS:

NORTH CAROLINA AND THE UNITED STATES

1866-1922

By HENRIETTA R. SMEDES
LIBRARIAN AND LABORATORY ASSISTANT
DEPARTMENT RURAL SOCIAL ECONOMICS
UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA PRESS
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The well-being of a people is like a tree; agriculture is its root, manufacture and commerce are its branches and its life; if the root is injured the leaves fall, the branches break away, and the tree dies.—Chinese Philosopher.

Agriculture is not only an occupation which some individuals follow for profit, it is a great national interest determining in a dominant way the fortunes of the nation and the opportunities and the character of the populations.—Dr. James W. Robertson.

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AGRICULTURAL GRAPHICS:

NORTH CAROLINA AND THE UNITED STATES

1866-1922

This bulletin presents the results of several years of painstaking and minute research in government crop and live stock statistics. The figures upon which the charts and graphs are based are all official figures—returns of the federal Bureau of the Census for census years and estimates of the United States Department of Agriculture for intervening years.

Throughout the bulletin census figures are given in italics. The Department of Agriculture's estimates are based primarily on census figures carried forward from year to year through percentage estimates made on the basis of returns from a host of crop reporters and field agents, and every possible side-light on the problems considered is utilized by the Department in its estimates. However there is an unavoidable tendency towards cumulative error in estimates of acreage as the distance from the actual census year increases, and consequently the estimates for the later years in the inter-census periods are apt to show considerable variation from the actual census figures when these become available. The Department of Agriculture has in some instances revised its original estimates for such years, so as to conform more nearly to ascertained fact; and in all cases where revisions have been made the latest estimates are here used. In census years the Department of Agriculture's estimates, made prior to the taking of the census, are shown in addition to the census figures, so as to exhibit the extent of the variation between the estimates of the Department of Agriculture and the actual census figures. The department officials have been most kind in supplying, upon request, copies of hitherto unpublished data from office records, and the writer, who was for many years employed in close association with statistical experts of the present Bureau of Agricultural Economics, has had the training requisite for the handling of such material.

The fifty-seven-year period covered, 1866 to 1922, is that for which an unbroken series of comparable statistics can be supplied. The findings pointed out in this bulletin are such as are plainly revealed by even a superficial examination of the statistics presented. These statistics will repay further close study. They can be used in many ways in working towards solving our various state agricultural and industrial problems.

The points covered are:

I. CROPS

1. Aggregate value of crops: North Carolina and the United States, 1909-1922. Table I.

Chart 1. Percent of United States aggregate crop values produced in North Carolina, 1909-1922.

Chart 2. Increase in aggregate crop values over 1909, North Carolina and the United States, 1909-1922.

2. Aggregate crop values, five-year average, 1917-1921:

Chart 3. Proportion of aggregate United States crop values produced in the five leading states and in North Carolina.

Chart 4. Proportion of aggregate United States crop values represented by important crops.

Chart 5. Proportion of aggregate North Carolina crop values represented by the same crops.

3. Proportion of important crops produced in the five leading states and in North Carolina, five-year average 1917-21.

Charts 6 to 13—corn, wheat, oats, potatoes, sweet potatoes, hay, cotton, and tobacco.

4. Acreage, yield per acre, total production, farm price per unit December 1, total value, and value per acre of important crops, North Carolina and the United States, 1866-1922. Tables II to IX.

Corn: Trends in yield per acre, farm price per bushel, and value per acre. Table II and charts 14 to 16.

Wheat: Trends in yield per acre, farm price per bushel, and value per acre. Table III and charts 17 to 19.

Oats: Trends in yield per acre, farm price per bushel, and value per acre. Table IV and charts 20 to 22.

Irish potatoes: Trends in yield per acre, farm price per bushel, and value per acre. Table V and charts 23 to 25.

Sweet potatoes: Trends in yield per acre, farm price per bushel, and value per acre. Table VI and charts 26 to 28.

Hay, tame: Trends in yield per acre, farm price per ton, and value per acre. Table VII and charts 29 to 31.

Cotton: Trends in yield per acre, farm price per pound, and value per acre. Table VIII and charts 32 to 34.

Tobacco: Trends in yield per acre, farm price per pound, and value per acre. Table IX and charts 35 to 37.

5. Other crops.

II. LIVESTOCK

1. Number, farm price per head January 1, and total value for farm animals, North Carolina and the United States, 1867-1923. Tables X to XII.

Horses and Mules: Trends in farm price per head. Table X and charts 38 and 39.

Milk Cows and Other Cattle: Trends in farm price per head. Table XI and charts 40 and 41.

Sheep and Swine: Trends in farm price per head. Table XII and charts 42 and 43.

III. FOOD PRODUCTION

1. Food production as compared with population. Tables XIII and XIV and charts 44 and 45.

2. General considerations.

I. CROPS

1. Aggregate value of crops: North Carolina and the United States, 1909-1922.

The figures presented in table 1 and charts 1 and 2 are more suggestive than authoritative.

The Department of Agriculture's hypothetical estimates of aggregate crop values are based on the assumption that the several crops whose production the department estimates from year to year (at present some twenty-two in number) represent each year the same proportion of total crop values that they represented in the previous census year. This is only roughly true, and any unusual or disproportionate increase or decrease in the value of some particular crop distorts the reliability of the esti-

TABLE I—AGGREGATE VALUE OF CROPS:
N. C. AND U. S., 1909-1922

Year	NORTH CAROLINA Hypothetical value of all crops				UNITED STATES Hypothetical value of all crops	
	Rank	Per cent U. S. Total Produced in State	State Total 1000 Dolls.	Per cent of 1909 Value	U. S. Total 1000 Dolls.	Per cent of 1909 Value
1909	19	2.5	*131,072*	100.0	*5,231,851*	100.0
1910	----------	3.0	169,496	129.3	5,727,398	109.5
1911	----------	2.9	170,296	129.9	5,834,685	111.5
1912	----------	3.1	184,139	140.5	5,964,011	114.0
1913	----------	3.4	208,615	159.2	6,178,691	118.1
1914	16	2.8	173,497	132.4	6,262,835	119.7
1915	16	2.9	197,185	150.4	6,768,598	129.4
1916	11	3.0	272,076	207.6	8,985,870	171.8
1917	11	3.2	434,093	331.2	13,506,669	256.3
1918	5	4.0	565,608	431.5	14,094,384	269.3
1919	12	3.4	*503,229*	383.9	*14,755,365*	282.0
1920	11	3.5	353,169	269.4	10,197,092	194.9
1921	6	3.9	252,376	192.5	6,410,229	122.5
1922	5	4.0	342,637	261.4	8,501,395	162.5

mated aggregate. However, such distortions tend to neutralize one another in considering averages for a series of years, and therefore the figures exhibited may be used as a rough measuring rod in determining our progress in the production of crop values.

It will be noted (chart 1) that whereas in 1909 North Carolina's crops represented only 2.5 percent of the total United States crop values, in 1922 they had risen to 4.0 percent of the total. Furthermore, the upward trend, as shown by using a series of moving averages for five-year periods, has been absolutely unmistakable and perfectly regular, with marked acceleration in the later years.

That we are indeed a favored people is shown strikingly in chart 2. Here the percent of increase from year to year in aggregate crop values in North Carolina over our 1909 crop values is shown in comparison with the similar percent of increase in the United States. The 1909 figures for the state and for the United States are taken as a starting point, and the percent of gain in North Carolina is unfailingly much above the percent of gain in the United States. Had the United States as a

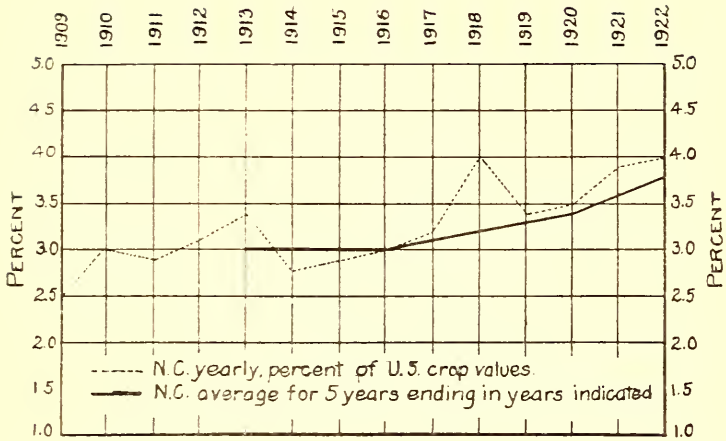


CHART 1.—PER CENT OF TOTAL UNITED STATES CROP VALUES PRODUCED IN NORTH CAROLINA

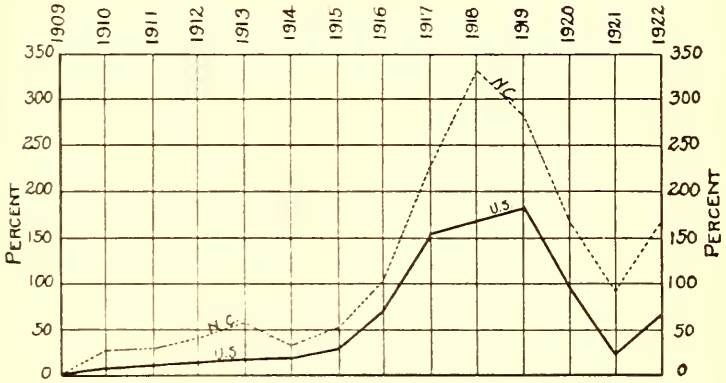


CHART 2.—INCREASE IN AGGREGATE CROP VALUES OVER 1909 VALUES: N. C. AND THE U. S., 1909-1922

whole gained as much as North Carolina has in crop values since 1909, the aggregate for the United States in 1922 would have been over thirteen and a half billion dollars, instead of eight and a half billions.

2. Aggregate crop values, five-year average 1917-21.

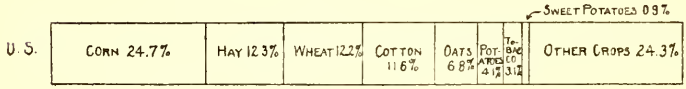
Chart 3 shows our standing and that of the leading five states in crop values for the five-year period 1917-21. We have not yet maintained our values for a period long enough to admit us to the ranks of the leading five states in an average covering five years; but the 1922 figures show that we were within the fold of the elect last year, and it seems likely that we may retain the rank we have reached in recent years. All 1922 figures are subject to revision in December, 1923, therefore they have not been used in the averages here given.

Charts 4 and 5 show an interesting contrast between the crops that have made the fortune of the United States as a whole and those that have raised North Carolina into prominence. The eight crops considered (corn, wheat, oats, potatoes, sweet potatoes, hay, cotton and tobacco) for the five-year period 1917-21

CHART 3

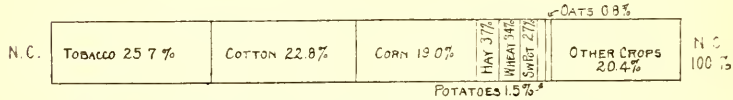
AGGREGATE CROP VALUES (HYPOTHETICAL), FIVE-YEAR AVERAGE 1917-1921
U.S. = $11,792,748,000 = 100.0 PER CENT.

CHART 4



PER CENT OF AGGREGATE CROP VALUES (HYPOTHETICAL) FOR 1917-1921
REPRESENTED BY CROPS SPECIFIED U.S. = $11,792,748,000 = 100.0 PER CENT.

CHART 5

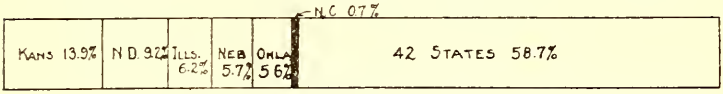


PER CENT OF N.C. AGGREGATE CROP VALUES (HYPOTHETICAL) FOR 1917-1921
REPRESENTED BY CROPS SPECIFIED N.C. = $421,695,000 = 100.0 PER CENT

CHARTS 6 TO 13.—PROPORTION OF IMPORTANT CROPS PRODUCED IN THE FIVE LEADING STATES AND IN NORTH CAROLINA

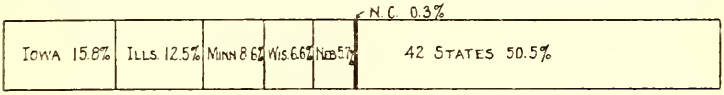
CORN U.S

FIVE-YEAR AVERAGE PRODUCTION 1917-1921 = 2,931,271,000 BUSHELS OR 100.0%



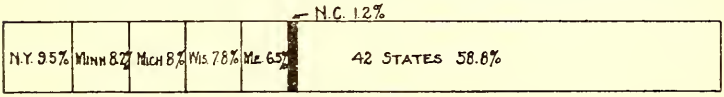
WHEAT U.S.

FIVE-YEAR AVERAGE PRODUCTION 1917-1921 = 834,801,000 BUSHELS OR 100.0%



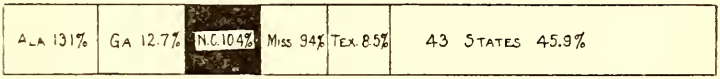
OATS U.S.

FIVE-YEAR AVERAGE PRODUCTION 1917-1921 = 1,377,903,000 BUSHELS OR 100.0%



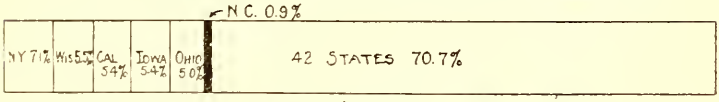
POTATOES U.S.

FIVE-YEAR AVERAGE PRODUCTION 1917-1921 = 388,358,000 BUSHELS OR 100.0%



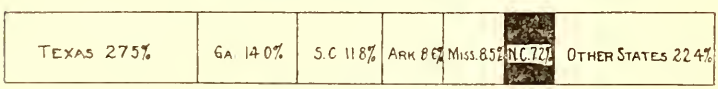
SWEET POTATOES, U.S.

FIVE-YEAR AVERAGE PRODUCTION 1917-1921 = 94,290,000 BUSHELS = 100.0%



HAY (TAME), U.S.

FIVE-YEAR AVERAGE PRODUCTION 1917-1921 = 83,312,000 TONS = 100.0%



COTTON, U.S.

FIVE-YEAR AVERAGE PRODUCTION 1917-1921 = 11,232,000 BALES = 100.0%

TOBACCO, U.S.

FIVE-YEAR AVERAGE PRODUCTION 1917-1921 = 1,361,149,000 POUNDS = 100.0%

represented in the United States, considered as a whole, 75.7 percent of the aggregate crop values, and in North Carolina 79.6 percent of such aggregate values. But in the United States at large the food and feed crops furnished by far the greater proportion of the values, whereas in North Carolina the only food crop that constitutes any considerable percentage of the total state crop values is corn—19 percent, while tobacco and cotton together represent 48.5 percent of the aggregate.

3. This point is further emphasized in charts 6 to 13, which show the proportion of important crops produced in the leading states and in North Carolina, on the basis of their five-year averages 1917-21. When the different crops are distributed according to the states which furnished the largest percentages, it is seen at a glance that sweet potatoes are the *only* food crop of which we furnish any considerable proportion in the United States total production. Our corn crop, which accounts for 19 percent of our own aggregate crop values, represents only 1.9 percent of the total corn crop of the country, whereas we produce 10.4 percent of the total sweet potato crop and nearly a quarter of the tobacco crop of the United States. Sweet potatoes and tobacco are the two crops in whose production we stand among the leading five states on a five-year average, 1917-21. Figures for 1922 and 1921 show us among the first five states in cotton as well, but how long we can maintain this position now that the boll weevil has gotten us into his clutches remains to be seen.

4. Tables II to IX and charts 14 to 37 present details of the crops of corn, wheat, oats, potatoes, sweet potatoes, hay, cotton, and tobacco in North Carolina and the United States from 1866 to 1922. These tables and charts constitute a statistical history of these particular crops for the entire period for which consecutive data are available. The estimates of acreage and production shown may not in particular years represent closely actual facts, but they are fairly comparable and they do represent the results of the Government's best effort to ascertain these facts. Where federal department officials have found it possible at a later date to amend the estimates originally made, revisions have been substituted for the original figures, so that the statistics given represent the best available information in

these matters. The federal government has had in mind for some time further revision of some of the earlier estimates of acreage (and of production, as a consequence), but so far this work has not been consummated. A committee of statistical experts, composed of Carroll W. Doten of the Boston Institute of Technology, Prof. Warren M. Persons of Harvard, W. I. King of the Bureau of Business Research of New York, and Dr. G. F. Warren, of Cornell University, has examined very recently the statistical work of the U. S. Department of Agriculture and recommended the revision and publication for all states of such historical records of acreage, production, and livestock as we are giving here for North Carolina. As a matter of fact, however, it is not always possible for the Government to carry out promptly recommendations of this kind, though eventually they may be acted upon. This fact has been borne in mind in the preparation of the present bulletin, and accordingly only such charts and graphs have been presented as will be affected very little, if at all, by any future revisions of acreage, production, or livestock figures. Estimates of yield per acre, of farm price per unit, and the resultant figure—value per acre, will remain practically unchanged in spite of revisions of individual acreage figures in some years.

The failings inherent in estimates of acreage and production have furnished an additional reason for basing our graphs on per-acre and per-unit figures rather than on totals. The per-acre and per-unit figures are not subject to the cumulative error which is apt to be present in the estimates of acreage and production; and, furthermore, they are rendered more reliable by the unerring nature of the law of averages. That is to say, they are based on a very large number of estimates, similarly made from year to year and properly distributed so as to constitute them reliable samples. For this reason, considerable reliance may be placed upon them.

Examining the charts presented, it may be noted that in every crop shown there is a marked trend towards increased yield per acre in the United States; and this is true also in North Carolina for all crops with the exception of hay and Irish potatoes. Both these crops are at present on the upward path in

TABLE II—CORN

Year	NORTH CAROLINA						UNITED STATES					
	Acr'ge Harv't'd 1000 Acres	Av. Yield per Acre—Bus.	Production 1000 Bus.	Av. Farm Price bu. Dec. 1—Cts.	Farm Value December 1 1000 Dolls.	Val. Acre Basis Dec. 1 Farm Price—Dolls.	Acr'ge Harv't'd 1000 Acres	Av. Yield per Acre—Bus.	Production 1000 Bus.	Av. Farm Price bu. Dec. 1—Cts.	Farm Val. Dec. 1 1000 Dolls.	Val. Acre Basis Dec. 1 Farm Price—Dolls.
1866	1,805	12.0	21,657	78	16,867	9.36	34,307	25.3	867,946	47.4	411,451	11.99
1867	1,549	11.6	17,974	74	13,390	8.58	32,520	23.6	768,320	57.0	437,770	13.46
1868	1,634	14.3	23,366	58	13,561	8.29	34,887	26.0	906,527	46.8	424,057	12.16
1869	1,176	14.8	17,400	79	13,788	11.69	37,103	23.6	874,320	59.8	522,551	14.08
1869	----	-----	*18,454*	-----	------	-----	-----	-----	*760,945*	-----	-------	------
1870	1,541	14.6	22,500	70	15,754	10.22	38,647	28.3	1,094,255	49.4	540,520	13.99
1871	1,479	14.0	20,700	64	13,217	8.96	34,091	29.1	991,898	43.4	430,356	12.62
1872	1,501	16.0	24,012	55	13,186	8.80	35,527	30.8	1,092,719	35.3	385,736	10.86
1873	1,488	14.2	21,130	59	12,452	8.38	39,197	23.8	932,274	44.2	411,961	10.51
1874	1,353	16.4	22,186	65	14,404	10.66	41,037	20.7	850,148	58.4	496,271	12.09
1875	1,485	15.0	22,275	52	11,652	7.80	44,841	29.5	1,321,069	36.7	484,675	10.81
1876	1,575	14.6	23,000	49	11,384	7.15	49,033	26.2	1,283,828	34.0	436,109	8.89
1877	1,629	14.0	22,800	51	11,533	7.14	50,369	26.7	1,342,558	34.8	467,635	9.28
1878	1,662	13.6	22,603	45	10,151	6.12	51,585	26.9	1,388,219	31.7	440,281	8.54
1879	*2,305*	15.0	34,575	58	20,054	8.70	*62,369*	29.2	1,823,163	37.1	676,251	10.84
1879	*2,305*	*12.2*	*28,020*	-----	------	-----	*62,369*	*28.1*	*1,754,592*	-----	-------	------
1880	2,253	16.4	36,954	52	19,216	8.53	62,318	27.6	1,717,435	39.6	679,714	10.91
1881	2,308	11.7	26,977	79	21,312	9.24	64,262	18.6	1,194,916	63.6	759,482	11.82
1882	2,446	14.0	34,261	53	18,158	7.42	65,660	24.6	1,617,025	48.5	783,867	11.94
1883	2,495	11.5	28,692	65	18,650	7.48	68,302	22.7	1,551,067	42.4	658,051	9.63
1884	2,520	12.5	31,499	60	18,899	7.50	69,684	25.8	1,795,528	35.7	640,736	9.19
1885	2,545	9.9	25,199	55	13,859	5.44	73,130	26.5	1,936,176	32.8	635,675	8.69
1886	2,596	10.5	27,215	57	15,513	5.98	75,694	22.0	1,665,441	36.6	610,311	8.06
1887	2,674	13.4	35,830	59	21,140	7.91	72,393	20.1	1,456,161	44.4	646,107	8.93
1888	2,674	10.6	28,343	58	16,439	6.15	75,673	26.3	1,987,790	34.1	677,562	8.95
1889	*2,361*	12.0	28,332	53	15,016	6.36	*72,088*	27.7	1,998,648	27.4	546,984	7.59
1889	*2,361*	*10.9*	*25,784*	-----	------	-----	*72,088*	*29.4*	*2,122,328*	-----	-------	------
1890	2,320	13.3	30,856	55	16,971	7.32	70,390	20.7	1,460,406	50.0	729,647	10.37
1891	2,280	14.1	32,148	58	18,646	8.18	74,496	27.6	2,055,823	39.7	816,917	10.97
1892	2,200	10.2	22,440	54	12,118	5.51	72,610	23.6	1,713,688	38.8	664,390	9.15
1893	2,200	12.3	27,060	50	13.530	6.15	74,434	22.9	1,707,572	35.9	612,998	8.24
1894	2,300	13.4	30,820	47	14,485	6.30	69,396	19.3	1,339,680	45.1	604,523	8.71
1895	2,450	14.5	35,525	38	13,500	5.51	85,567	27.0	2,310,952	25.0	578,408	6.76
1896	2,470	12.0	29,640	37	10,967	4.44	86,560	28.9	2,503,484	21.3	532,884	6.16
1897	2,450	13.0	31,850	43	13,696	5.59	88,127	24.3	2,144,553	26.0	558,309	6.34
1898	2,580	14.0	36,120	43	15,532	6.02	88,304	25.6	2,261,119	28.4	642,747	7.28
1899	*2,720*	13.0	35,360	47	16,619	6.11	*94,914*	25.9	2,454,626	29.9	734,917	7.74
1899	*2,720*	*12.8*	*34,819*	-----	------	-----	*94,914*	*28.1*	*2,666,324*	-----	------	------
1900	2,675	12.0	32,100	57	18,297	6.84	95,042	26.4	2,505,148	35.1	878,243	9.24
1901	2,575	12.0	30,900	73	22,557	8.76	94,636	17.0	1,607,288	60.0	964,543	10.19
1902	2,700	13.9	37,530	60	22,518	8.34	95,517	27.4	2,620,699	40.0	1,048,735	10.98
1903	2,570	14.7	37,779	61	23,045	8.97	90,661	25.8	2,339,417	42.1	984,173	10.86
1904	2,550	15.2	38,760	62	24,031	9.42	93,340	27.0	2,520,682	43.7	1,101,430	11.80
1905	2,500	13.9	34,750	64	22,240	8.90	93,573	29.3	2,744,329	40.7	1,116,817	11.94
1906	2,500	15.3	38,250	68	26,010	10.40	93,643	30.9	2,895,822	39.2	1,135,969	12.13
1907	2,500	16.5	41,250	74	30,525	12.21	94,971	26.5	2,512,065	50.9	1,277,607	13.45
1908	2,450	18.0	44,100	79	34,839	14.22	95,603	26.6	2,544,957	60.0	1,527,679	15.98
1909	*2,459*	16.8	41,311	85	35,114	14.28	*98,383*	26.1	2,572,336	58.6	1,507,185	15.32
1909	*2,459*	*13.8*	*34,064*	-----	------	-----	*98,383*	*25.9*	*2,552,190*	-----	-------	------
1910	2,650	18.6	49,290	76	37,460	14.14	104,035	27.7	2,886,200	48.0	1,384,817	13.31
1911	2,700	18.4	49,680	82	40,738	15.09	105,825	23.9	2,531,488	61.8	1,565,258	14.79
1912	2,808	18.2	51,106	83	42,418	15.11	107,083	29.2	3,124,746	48.7	1,520,454	14.20
1913	2,835	19.5	55,282	88	48,648	17.16	105,820	23.1	2,446,988	69.1	1,692,092	15.99
1914	2,835	20.3	57,550	86	49,493	17.46	103,435	25.8	2,672,804	64.4	1,722,070	16.65
1915	2,900	21.0	60,900	77	46,893	16.17	106,197	28.2	2,994,793	57.5	1,722,680	16.22
1916	2,600	18.5	48,100	110	52,910	20.35	105,296	24.4	2,566,927	88.9	2,280,729	21.66
1917	2,920	20.0	58,400	170	90,280	34.00	116,730	26.3	3,065,233	127.9	3,920,228	33.58
1918	3,030	21.0	63,630	177	112,625	37.17	104,467	24.0	2,502,665	136.5	3,416,240	32.70
1919*	2,531	19.0	48,089	185	88,965	35.15	97,170	28.9	2,811,302	134.5	3,780,597	38.91
1919	*2,311*	*17.7*	*40,998*	-----	------	-----	*87,772*	*26.7*	*2,345,833*	-----	-------	------
1920	2,428	22.5	54,630	113	61,732	25.42	101,699	31.5	3,208,584	67.0	2,150,332	21.14
1921	2,552	19.3	49,254	78	38,418	15.05	103,740	29.6	3,068,569	42.3	1,297,213	12.50
1922**	2,526	20.0	50,520	89	44,963	17.80	102,428	28.2	2,890,712	65.7	1,900,287	18.55

* Revisions based on 1919 census.

** Subject to revision December, 1923.

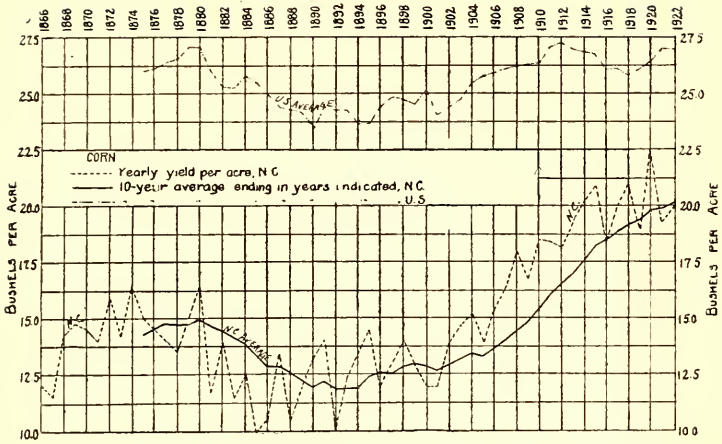


CHART 14.—CORN: YIELD PER ACRE, N. C. AND U. S.

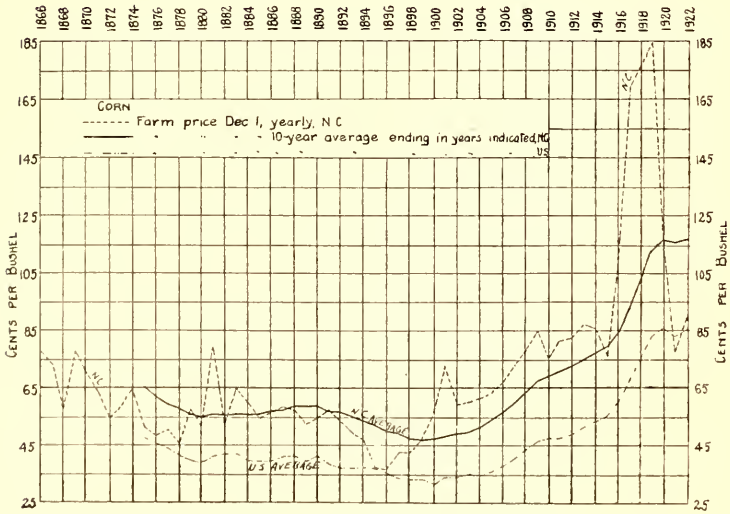
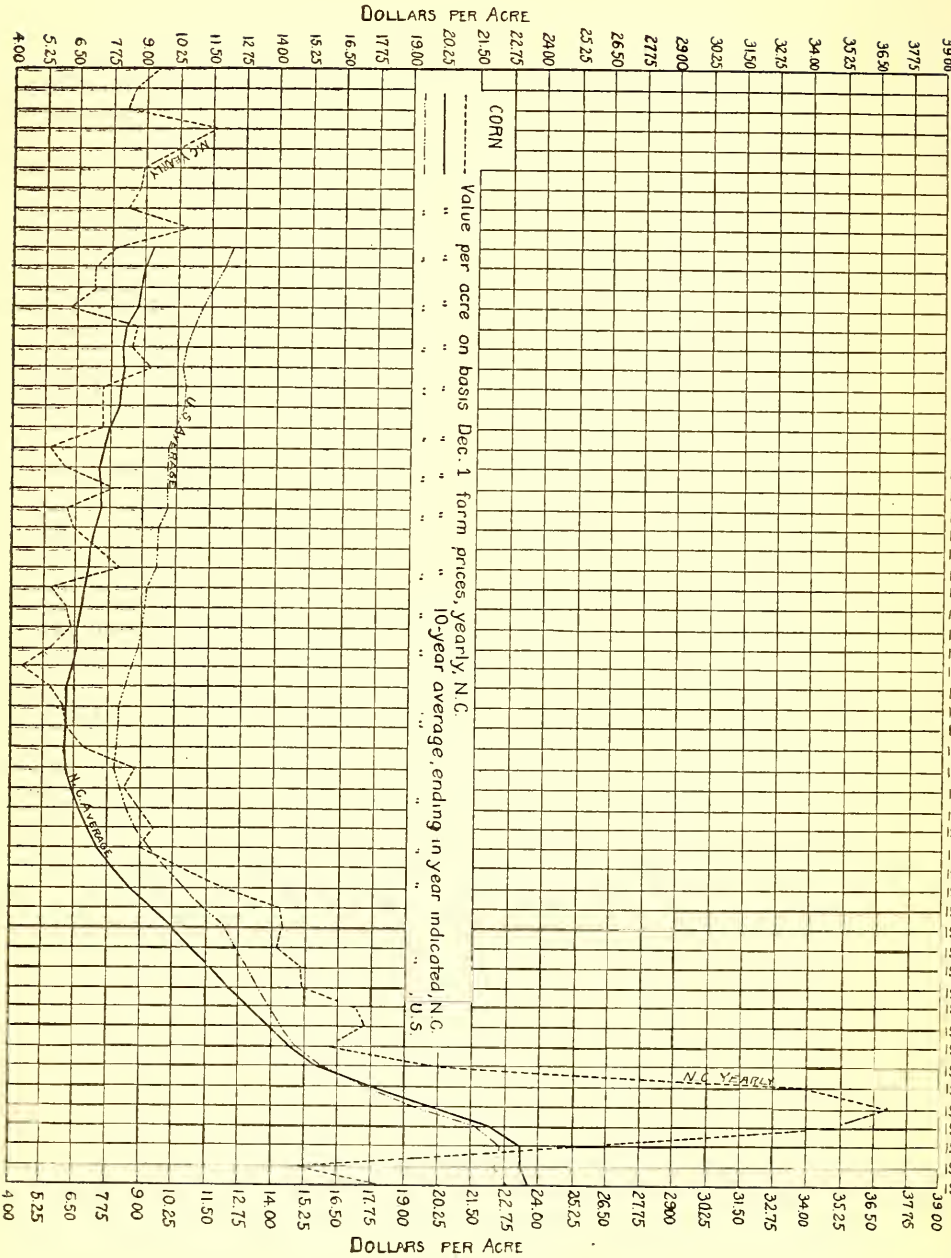


CHART 15.—CORN: FARM PRICE, N. C. AND U. S.


DOLLARS PER ACRE
CORN
Value per acre on basis Dec. 1 farm prices, yearly, N.C.
" " " " " " " " 10-year average, ending in year indicated, N.C.
" " " " " " " "

yield per acre in North Carolina, but they have not yet reached their earlier level.

Looking at the charts in detail, we may observe a number of interesting points.

Corn. The enormous difference between our yield per acre of corn and the yield in the United States as a whole is strikingly shown in chart 14. But it is also shown that we have made a much greater gain in yield per acre than the country as a whole has made, and the gulf fixed between our average yield and the United States average seems to be steadily decreasing. The United States average yield per acre for the ten-year period 1913-22 was 27.00 bushels, as compared with 26.07 bushels for the decade 1886-75—a gain of 3.6 percent; whereas in North Carolina the yield in the later period was 20.11 bushels per acre and in the earier period 14.29 bushels—a gain of 40.7 percent.

As a consequence of the smallness of our yield, our farm price per bushel has been consistently higher than the United States average (chart 15); and though our yield has been increasing, our farm price per bushel has also maintained an upward trend. The result is that our value per acre, after being for a long period below the United States average, has in recent years risen above the United States average value per acre. This is shown in chart 16. This achievement is the result of our increased yield per acre rather than of our increased price per bushel. There is very litttle difference in the percentage of increase in price per bushel of corn in North Carolina and the United States, as is shown by the fact that the percentage gain in price per bushel, comparing the ten-year average for 1913-22 with the ten-year average for 1866-75, was 79.4 in North Carolina and 78.5 in the United States. But at the same time, because of our increased yield, comparing the two decades 1913-22 and 1866-75, the North Carolina increase in value per acre is shown to be 154.2 percent, while the United States gain was only 8.95 percent.

Wheat. Our wheat crop comprises only a very small proportion—seven-tenths of one percent—of the total United States wheat crop. However, as in the corn crop—though not to so great an extent—we seem to be gaining on the United States in the percentage increase in yield per acre (chart 17). Comparing the per-acre yields in the two decades 1913-22 and 1866-75

TABLE III—WHEAT

Year	NORTH CAROLINA						UNITED STATES					
	Acr'ge Harv't'd 1000 Acres	Av. Yield per Acre—Bus.	Production 1000 Bus.	Av. Farm Price bu. Dec. 1—Cts.	Farm Val.Dec.1 1000 Dolls.	Val. Acre Basis Dec. 1 Farm Price—Dolls.	Acr'ge Harv't'd 1000 Acres	Av. Yield per Acre—Bus.	Production 1000 Bus.	Av. Farm Price bu. Dec. 1—Cts.	Farm Val.Dec.1 1000 Dolls.	Val. Acre Basis Dec. 1 Farm Price—Dolls.
1866	491	5.8	2,846	189	5,384	10.96	15,424	9.9	152,000	152.7	232,110	15.05
1867	495	6.9	3,415	151	5,162	10.42	18,322	11.6	212,441	145.2	308,387	16.83
1868	504	5.9	2,971	149	4,421	8.79	18,460	12.1	224,037	108.5	243,033	13.17
1869	461	8.4	3,870	121	4,692	10.16	19,181	13.6	260,147	76.5	199,025	10.38
1869	----	-----	*2,860*	-----	-----	------	------	-----	*287,746*	-----	-------	------
1870	490	8.6	4,218	109	4,581	9.37	18,993	12.4	235,885	94.4	222,767	11.73
1871	422	6.0	2,530	128	3,231	7.68	19,944	11.6	230,722	114.5	264,076	13.24
1872	401	8.2	3,289	136	4,457	11.15	20,858	12.0	249,997	111.4	278,522	13.35
1873	451	6.2	2,795	143	3,989	8.87	22,172	12.7	281,255	106.9	300,670	13.56
1874	360	8.0	2,878	124	3,581	9.92	24,967	12.3	308,103	86.3	265,881	10.65
1875	407	7.5	3,050	108	3,297	8.10	26,382	11.1	292,136	89.5	261,397	9.91
1876	411	7.3	3,000	110	3,300	8.03	27,627	10.5	289,356	97.0	280,743	10.16
1877	470	8.3	3,900	106	4,135	8.80	26,278	13.9	364,194	105.7	385,089	14.65
1878	465	6.5	3,024	100	3,018	6.50	32,109	13.1	420,122	77.6	325,814	10.15
1879	*647*	7.0	4,529	128	5,797	8.96	*35,430*	14.1	496,435	110.6	549,219	15.50
1879	*647*	*5.3*	*3,397*	-----	-----	------	*35,430*	*13.0*	*459,483*	-----	-------	------
1880	761	6.4	4,871	115	5,602	7.36	37,987	13.1	498,550	95.1	474,202	12.48
1881	662	6.9	4,579	149	6,823	10.28	37,709	10.2	383,280	119.2	456,880	12.12
1882	719	7.7	5,495	106	5,824	8.16	37,067	13.6	504,185	88.4	445,602	12.02
1883	717	5.9	4,231	117	4,950	6.90	36,456	11.6	421,086	91.1	383,649	10.52
1884	767	6.1	4,650	89	4,138	5.43	39,476	13.0	512,765	64.5	330,862	8.38
1885	683	4.1	2,790	100	2,790	4.10	34,189	10.4	357,112	77.1	275,320	8.05
1886	697	4.6	3,209	100	3,209	4.60	36,806	12.4	457,218	68.7	314,226	8.54
1887	717	7.1	5,094	88	4,483	6.25	37,642	12.1	456,329	68.1	310,613	8.25
1888	710	5.4	3,835	105	4,027	5.67	37,336	11.1	415,868	92.6	385,248	10.32
1889	*666*	6.2	4,129	90	3,716	5.58	*33,580*	12.9	434,383	69.5	301,869	8.99
1889	*666*	*6.4*	*4,292*	-----	-----	------	*33,580*	*13.9*	*468,374*	-----	-------	------
1890	700	4.4	3,080	100	3,080	4.40	34,048	11.1	378,097	83.3	315,112	9.25
1891	720	6.8	4,896	102	4,994	6.94	37,826	15.5	584,504	83.4	487,463	12.89
1892	740	7.1	5,254	89	4,676	6.32	39,552	13.3	527,986	62.2	328,329	8.30
1893	760	8.2	6,232	72	4,487	5.90	37,934	11.3	427,553	53.5	228,599	6.03
1894	760	5.0	3,800	65	2,470	3.25	39,425	13.1	516,485	48.9	252,709	6.41
1895	780	6.9	5,382	72	3,875	4.97	40,848	13.9	569,456	50.3	286,539	7.01
1896	770	7.3	5,621	83	4,665	6.06	43,916	12.4	544,193	71.7	390,346	8.89
1897	700	8.0	5,600	94	5,264	7.52	46,046	13.3	610,254	80.9	493,683	10.72
1898	760	9.2	6,992	78	5,454	7.18	51,007	15.1	772,163	58.2	449,022	8.80
1899	747	6.7	5,005	82	4,104	5.49	*52,589*	12.1	636,051	58.6	372,982	7.09
1899	*747*	*5.8*	*4,342*	-----	-----	------	*52,589*	*12.5*	*658,534*	-----	-------	------
1900	830	9.6	7,968	82	6,534	7.87	51,387	11.7	602,708	62.0	373,578	7.27
1901	820	8.7	7,134	82	5,850	7.13	52,473	15.0	789,538	62.6	494,096	9.42
1902	640	5.3	3,392	92	3,121	4.88	49,649	14.6	724,528	63.0	456,530	9.20
1903	680	5.1	3,468	97	3,364	4.95	51,632	12.9	664,543	69.5	461,605	8.94
1904	600	8.6	5,160	119	6,140	10.23	47,825	12.5	596,375	92.4	551,128	11.52
1905	600	6.7	4,020	102	4,100	6.83	49,389	14.7	726,384	74.6	542,119	10.98
1906	560	9.1	5,096	93	4,739	8.46	47,800	15.8	757,195	66.2	501,355	10.49
1907	520	9.5	4,940	107	5,286	10.16	45,116	14.1	637,981	86.5	552,074	12.24
1908	500	10.0	5,000	107	5,350	10.70	45,970	14.0	644,656	92.2	594,092	12.92
1909	*502*	9.5	4,769	127	6,057	12.06	*44,262*	15.8	700,434	98.4	689,108	15.57
1909	*502*	*7.6*	*3,827*	-----	-----	------	*44,262*	*15.4*	*683,379*	-----	-------	------
1910	598	11.4	6,817	110	7,499	12.54	45,681	13.9	635,121	88.3	561,051	12.28
1911	626	10.6	6,636	102	6,769	10.81	49,543	12.5	621,338	87.4	543,063	10.96
1912	598	8.9	5,322	111	5,907	9.88	45,814	15.9	730,267	76.0	555,280	12.12
1913	605	11.7	7,078	106	7,503	12.40	50,184	15.2	763,380	79.9	610,122	12.16
1914	611	12.0	7,332	117	8,578	14.04	53,541	16.6	891,017	98.6	878,680	16.41
1915	900	10.9	9,810	120	11,772	13.08	60,469	17.0	1,025,801	91.9	942,303	15.58
1916	870	10.5	9,135	176	16,078	18.48	52,316	12.2	636,318	160.3	1,019,968	19.50
1917	860	10.0	8,600	234	20,124	23.40	45,089	14.1	636,655	200.8	1,278,112	28.35
1918	900	7.0	6,300	230	14,490	16.10	59,181	15.6	921,438	204.2	1,881,826	31.80
1919*	705	7.9	5,570	233	12,978	18.41	75,694	12.8	967,979	214.9	2,080,056	27.48
1919	*621*	*7.6*	*4,745*	-----	-----	------	*73,099*	*12.9*	*945,403*	-----	-------	------
1920	680	11.7	7,956	210	16,708	24.57	61,143	13.6	833,027	143.7	1,197,263	19.58
1921	600	7.5	4,500	144	6,480	10.80	63,696	12.8	814,905	92.6	754,834	11.85
1922**	612	9.0	5,508	136	7,491	12.24	61,230	14.0	856,211	100.9	864,139	14.11

* Revisions based on 1919 census. ** Subject to revision December, 1923.

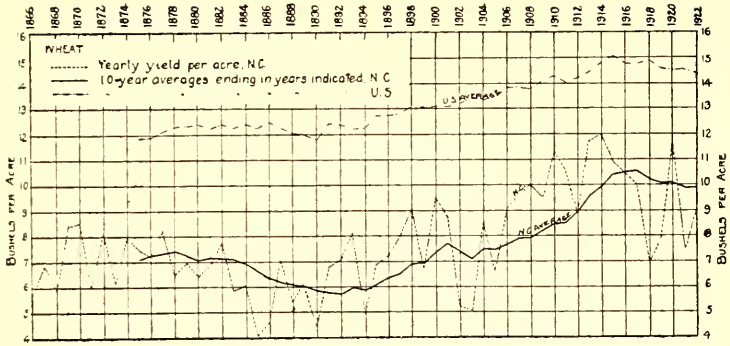


CHART 17.—WHEAT: YIELD PER ACRE, N. C. AND U. S.

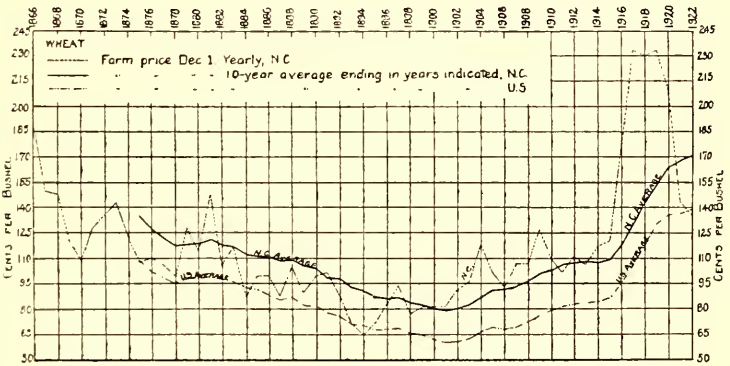


CHART 18.—WHEAT: FARM PRICE, N. C. AND U. S.

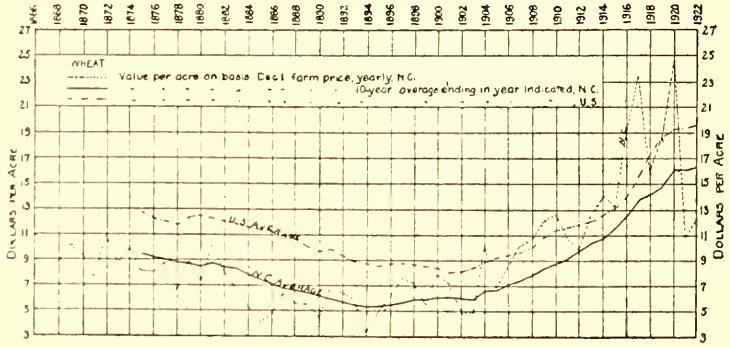


CHART 19.—WHEAT: VALUE PER ACRE, N. C. AND U. S.

shows the percentage increase in North Carolina to be 37.3 and in the United States 20.6. Of course in both the United States and North Carolina there has been a decline in yield since the high-pressure days of the war years, but in North Carolina the trend is again upwards, though there would seem to be a continuous decline for the country as a whole.

In farm price per bushel of wheat (chart 18) we run rather uniformly parallel with the United States except that in the war years the United States price gained on ours and since the war we seem to have had the advantage. Our price is uniformly higher than the United States price, but on the whole the United States has made a slightly greater gain in average price. The percentage gain of the latest decade, 1913-22, over the earliest, 1866-75, was 25.6 in North Carolina and 27.8 in the United States.

There is not sufficient difference between price per bushel of wheat in North Carolina and in the United States to overcome the difference in yield per acre; consequently our value per acre (chart 19) is uniformly lower than the value per acre in the United States. We gained decidedly on the United States average up to 1916, but have failed to keep pace with the United States since that date. The percentage gain for the decade 1913-22 over the decade 1866-75 was 71.4 in North Carolina and 53.9 in the United States.

Oats. Our oats crop is so insignificant as hardly to call for detailed consideration. It represents three-tenths of one percent of the total oats crop of the United States, and contributes eight-tenths of one percent to our state aggregate crop values. As with corn and wheat, the yield per acre (chart 20) in the United States as a whole is greatly larger than in North Carolina, but we show a greater percentage gain than the United States shows when the averages for the earliest and latest decades considered are compared (35.9 percent gain in North Carolina and 11.7 percent in the United States at large). As with corn, our higher farm price (chart 21) has brought up our value per acre (chart 22) nearer to the United States level. The gain in value per acre in the average for the decade 1913-22 over the average for 1866-75 was 101.2 percent in North Carolina and 49.6 percent in the United States.

TABLE IV—OATS

Year	NORTH CAROLINA						UNITED STATES					
	Acr'ge Harv't'd 1000 Acres	Av. Yield per Acre—Bus.	Production 1000 Bus.	Av. Farm Price bu. Dec. 1—Cts.	Farm Val. Dec. 1 1000 Dolls.	Val. Acre Basis Dec. 1 Farm Price—Dolls.	Acr'ge Harv't'd 1000 Acres	Av. Yield per Acre—Bus.	Production 1000 Bus.	Av. Farm Price bu. Dec. 1—Cts.	Farm Val. Dec. 1 1000 Dolls.	Val. Acre Basis Dec. 1 Farm Price—Dolls.
1866	206	14.3	2,949	49	1,455	7.01	8,864	30.2	268,141	35.1	94,058	10.61
1867	262	13.3	3,479	46	1,595	6.12	10,082	27.6	278,698	44.5	123,903	12.29
1868	268	13.0	3,479	48	1,683	6.24	9,666	26.4	254,961	41.7	106,356	11.00
1869	232	15.1	3,500	52	1,803	7.85	9,461	30.5	288,334	38.0	109,522	11.58
1869	-----	-----	*3,220*	-----	-----	-----	------	-----	*282,167*	-----	-------	------
1870	170	16.2	2,750	51	1,407	8.26	8,792	28.1	247,277	39.0	96,444	10.97
1871	208	10.6	2,200	57	1,246	6.04	8,366	30.6	255,743	36.2	92,591	11.07
1872	207	13.8	2,860	71	2,027	9.80	9,001	30.2	271,747	29.9	81,304	9.03
1873	193	16.3	3,146	52	1,622	8.48	9,752	27.7	270,340	34.6	93,474	9.59
1874	239	12.9	3,083	60	1,835	7.74	10,897	22.1	240,369	47.1	113,134	10.38
1875	250	13.0	3,250	51	1,643	6.63	11,915	29.7	354,318	32.0	113,441	9.52
1876	261	13.5	3,530	49	1,747	6.62	13,359	24.0	320,884	32.4	103,845	7.77
1877	257	15.5	3,980	45	1,781	6.98	12,826	31.7	406,394	28.4	115,546	9.01
1878	278	16.0	4,448	43	1,909	6.88	13,176	31.4	413,579	24.6	101,752	7.72
1879	*500*	16.0	8,000	45	3,600	7.20	*16,145*	27.9	450,745	33.3	150,178	9.30
1879	*500*	7.7	*3,838*	-----	-----	------	*16,145*	*25.3*	*407,859*	-----	-------	------
1880	501	11.0	5,515	51	2,813	5.61	16,188	25.8	417,885	36.0	150,244	9.28
1881	506	8.1	4,081	62	2,530	5.02	16,832	24.7	416,481	46.4	193,199	11.48
1882	582	9.8	5,713	48	2,742	4.70	18,495	26.4	488,251	37.5	182,978	9.89
1883	594	8.7	5,142	51	2,622	4.44	20,325	28.1	571,302	32.7	187,040	9.20
1884	618	7.5	4,622	46	2,126	3.45	21,301	27.4	583,628	27.7	161,528	7.58
1885	599	7.5	4,483	50	2,242	3.75	22,784	27.6	629,409	28.5	179,632	7.88
1886	635	9.9	6,276	45	2,824	4.46	23,658	26.4	624,134	29.8	186,138	7.86
1887	654	13.0	8,504	44	3,742	5.72	25,921	25.4	659,618	30.4	200,700	7.74
1888	661	9.2	6,078	46	2,796	4.23	26,998	26.0	701,735	27.8	195,424	7.24
1889	*542*	10.2	5,528	44	2,432	4.49	*28,321*	28.3	801,586	21.9	175,801	6.21
1889	*542*	*8.3*	*4,513*	-----	-----	------	*28,321*	*28.6*	*809,251*	-----	-------	------
1890	540	9.2	4,968	51	2,534	4.69	28,102	20.4	572,665	41.6	238,345	8.48
1891	425	9.5	4,038	51	2,059	4.84	27,604	30.4	838,876	30.6	256,814	9.30
1892	400	9.7	3,880	45	1,746	4.36	28,023	24.8	695,267	31.5	218,954	7.81
1893	400	14.1	5,640	44	2,482	6.20	28,452	23.8	676,154	29.1	196,505	6.90
1894	390	10.9	4,251	44	1,870	4.80	28,362	25.2	715,559	32.1	229,538	8.09
1895	370	15.1	5,587	38	2,123	5.74	29,379	30.2	885,900	19.4	172,186	5.86
1896	340	12.0	4,080	35	1,428	4.20	29,645	26.3	780,563	18.3	143,192	4.83
1897	310	13.0	4,030	37	1,491	4.81	28,353	27.9	791,591	20.8	164,886	5.82
1898	300	14.3	4,290	37	1,587	5.29	28,769	29.3	842,747	25.2	212,482	7.39
1899	*271*	12.0	3,252	41	1,333	4.92	*29,540*	31.3	925,555	24.5	226,588	7.67
1899	*271*	*9.1*	*2,455*	-----	-----	------	*29,540*	*31.9*	*943,389*	-----	-------	------
1900	260	13.9	3,614	45	1,636	6.26	30,290	29.9	904,566	25.4	230,160	7.60
1901	260	14.4	3,744	51	1,909	7.34	29,894	26.0	778,531	40.0	311,374	10.42
1902	250	12.7	3,175	51	1,619	6.48	30,578	34.5	1,055,441	30.6	322,944	10.56
1903	240	11.4	2,736	52	1,423	5.93	30,866	27.5	848,824	33.8	286,879	9.29
1904	225	15.8	3,555	52	1,849	8.22	31,353	32.1	1,007,183	31.0	312,467	9.97
1905	230	15.3	3,519	47	1,654	7.19	32,072	33.3	1,068,780	28.8	308,086	9.61
1906	225	16.2	3,645	49	1,786	7.94	33,353	31.0	1,034,623	31.8	329,142	9.87
1907	220	15.6	5,632	60	3,379	9.36	33,641	24.0	807,308	44.3	357,340	10.62
1908	230	16.5	3,795	63	2,391	10.40	34,006	24.9	847,109	47.3	400,363	11.77
1909	228	16.5	3,762	66	2,483	10.89	*35,159*	30.4	1,068,289	40.6	433,869	12.34
1909	*228*	*12.2*	*2,783*	-----	-----	------	*35,159*	*28.6*	*1,007,143*	-----	-------	------
1910	221	18.2	4,022	60	2,413	10.92	37,548	31.6	1,186,341	34.4	408,388	10.88
1911	219	16.5	3,614	63	2,277	10.40	37,763	24.4	922,298	45.0	414,663	10.98
1912	204	18.6	3,794	62	2,352	11.53	37,917	37.4	1,418,337	31.9	452,469	11.93
1913	230	19.5	4,485	61	2,736	11.90	38,399	29.2	1,121,768	39.2	439,596	11.45
1914	250	17.5	4,375	65	2,844	11.38	38,442	29.7	1,141,060	43.8	499,431	12.99
1915	350	23.0	8,050	62	4,991	14.26	40,996	37.8	1,549,030	36.1	559,506	13.65
1916	300	17.5	6,825	74	5,050	12.95	41,527	39.1	1,251,837	52.4	655,928	15.80
1917	275	16.0	4,400	93	4,092	14.88	43,553	36.6	1,592,740	66.6	1,061,474	24.37
1918	300	17.0	5,100	108	5,508	18.36	44,349	34.7	1,538,124	70.9	1,090,322	24.59
1919*	170	16.7	2,839	106	3,009	17.70	40,359	29.3	1,184,030	70.4	833,922	20.66
1919	*126*	*13.3*	*1,671*	-----	-----	------	*37,991*	*27.8*	*1,055,183*	-----	-------	------
1920	154	22.0	3,388	96	3,252	21.12	42,491	35.2	1,496,281	46.0	688,311	16.20
1921	170	18.0	3,060	70	2,142	12.60	45,495	23.7	1,078,341	30.2	325,954	7.16
1922**	178	21.0	3,738	67	2,504	14.07	40,693	29.9	1,215,496	39.4	478,548	11.76

* Revisions based on 1919 census. ** Subject to revision December, 1923.

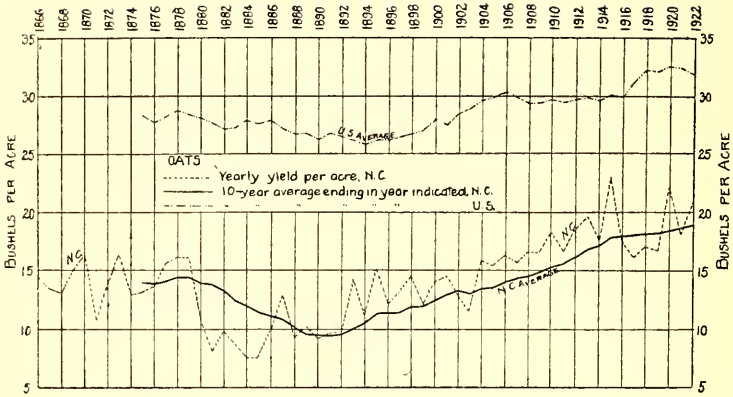


CHART 20.—OATS: YIELD PER ACRE, N. C. AND U. S.

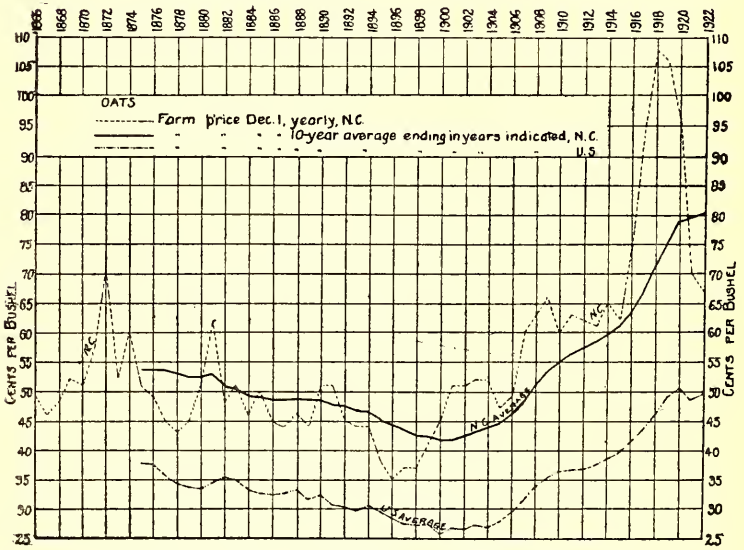


CHART 21.—OATS: FARM PRICE, N. C. AND U. S.

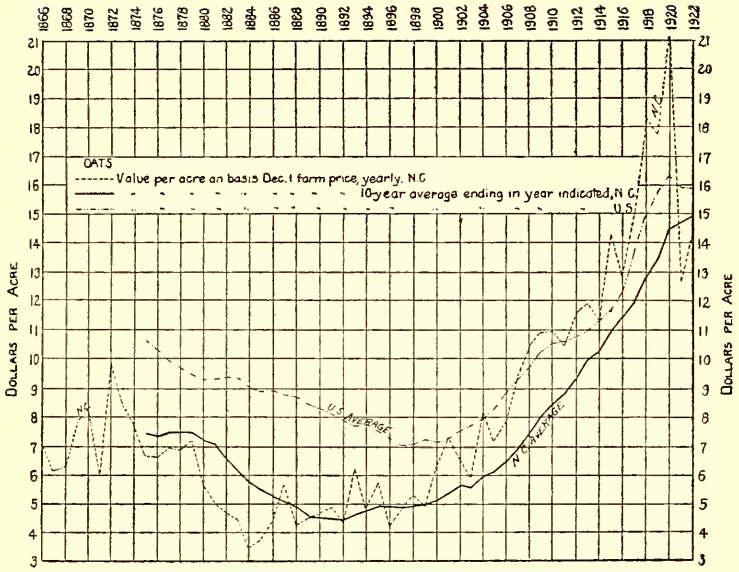


CHART 22.—OATS: VALUE PER ACRE, N. C. AND U. S.

Potatoes. Irish potatoes are another crop of which our contribution to the food supply of the country is unimportant. We produced 1.2 percent of the total United States crop in the five-year period 1917-21, and the average value of our crop in this period represented 1.5 percent of our average aggregate crop values. As already noted, Irish potatoes are a crop in which our present yields (chart 23) in the main are not up to their earlier levels. The trend was sharply downward in both the United States and North Carolina in the decade from 1880 to 1890, after which time the trend has been on the whole steadily upward. Between the earlier and later decades considered (1866-75 and 1913-22), our decline in average yields has been 1.4 percent, whereas in this period the United States has advanced in yields 4.6 percent. Irish potatoes are a crop in which there is a wide variation in yield from year to year and correspondingly large variations in price in opposite directions from the variations in yield. In the main, however, we have paralleled the United States prices and values per acre rather closely (charts 24 and 25), on a higher level in both instances, and there has been a

TABLE V—POTATOES, IRISH

Year	NORTH CAROLINA						UNITED STATES					
	Acr'ge Harv't'd 1000 Acres	Av. Yield per Acre—Bus.	Production 1000 Bus.	Av. Farm Price bu. Dec. 1—Cts.	Farm Val.Dec.1 1000 Dolls.	Val. Acre Basis Dec. 1 Farm Price—Dolls.	Acr'ge Harv't'd 1000 Acres	Av. Yield per Acre—Bus.	Production 1000 Bus.	Av. Farm Price bu. Dec. 1—Cts.	Farm Val.Dec.1 1000 Dolls.	Val. Acre Basis Dec. 1 Farm Price—Dolls.
1866	10	81	831	49	409	39.69	1,069	100.2	107,201	47.3	50,723	47.43
1867	9	93	838	44	372	40.92	1,192	82.0	97,783	65.9	64,462	54.07
1868	11	76	838	66	555	50.16	1,132	93.8	106,090	59.3	62,919	55.60
1869	9	74	675	63	428	46.62	1,222	109.5	133,886	42.9	57,481	47.03
1869	----	-----	*739*	-----	-----	------	------	-----	*143,337*	-----	-------	------
1870	9	81	742	63	466	51.03	1,325	86.6	114,775	65.0	74,621	56.31
1871	8	105	816	64	521	67.20	1,221	98.7	120,462	53.9	64,905	53.16
1872	8	103	848	62	526	63.86	1,331	85.3	113,516	53.5	60,692	45.59
1873	8	94	780	64	496	60.16	1,295	81.9	106,089	65.2	69,154	53.39
1874	9	75	702	62	437	46.50	1,310	80.9	105,981	61.5	65,223	49.79
1875	9	85	745	58	435	49.30	1,510	110.5	166,877	34.4	57,358	37.98
1876	12	70	850	59	499	41.30	1,742	71.7	124,827	61.9	77,320	44.39
1877	12	72	853	76	647	54.72	1,792	94.9	170,092	43.7	74,272	41.44
1878	12	99	1,197	59	705	58.41	1,777	69.9	124,127	58.7	72,924	41.04
1879	12	92	1,104	63	696	57.96	1,837	98.9	181,626	43.6	79,154	43.09
1879	----	-----	*723*	-----	-----	------	------	-----	*169,459*	-----	-------	------
1880	12	105	1,273	67	853	70.35	1,843	91.0	167,660	48.3	81,062	44.00
1881	19	38	710	70	497	26.60	2,042	53.5	109,145	91.0	99,291	48.63
1882	20	55	1,100	75	825	41.70	2,172	78.7	170,973	55.7	95,305	43.89
1883	20	65	1,313	68	893	44.20	2,289	90.9	208,164	42.2	87,849	38.37
1884	20	63	1,260	55	693	34.65	2,221	85.8	190,642	39.6	75,524	34.00
1885	21	61	1,256	57	716	34.77	2,266	77.2	175,029	44.7	78,153	34.49
1886	21	60	1,273	56	713	33.60	2,287	73.5	168,051	46.7	78,442	34.30
1887	21	52	1,114	59	657	30.68	2,357	56.9	134,103	68.2	91,507	38.82
1888	22	63	1,377	65	895	40.95	2,533	79.9	202,365	40.2	81,414	32.14
1889	*18*	73	1,314	52	683	37.96	*2,601*	77.4	201,200	35.4	71,294	27.41
1889	*18*	*51*	*1,199*	-----	-----	------	*2,601*	-----	*217,546*	-----	-------	------
1890	18	73	1,314	65	854	47.45	2,653	56.7	150,494	75.3	113,291	42.70
1891	16	75	1,200	68	816	51.00	2,732	93.7	256,122	35.6	91,229	33.39
1892	19	55	1,045	61	637	33.55	2,650	62.1	164,516	65.5	107,835	40.69
1893	20	97	1,940	60	1,164	58.20	2,722	71.7	195,040	58.4	113,886	41.84
1894	22	62	1,364	60	818	37.20	2,891	63.6	183,841	52.8	97,030	33.56
1895	22	79	1,738	55	956	43.45	3,101	102.3	317,114	26.2	83,151	26.81
1896	24	79	1,896	43	815	33.97	2,975	91.4	271,769	29.0	78,783	26.48
1897	24	66	1,584	64	1,014	42.24	2,813	67.9	191,025	54.2	103,442	36.77
1898	24	67	1,608	62	997	41.54	2,841	77.0	218,772	41.5	90,897	31.99
1899	*24*	57	1,368	66	903	37.62	*2,939*	88.6	260,257	39.7	103,365	35.17
1899	*24*	*69*	*1,636*	-----	-----	------	*2,939*	*93.0*	*273,318*	-----	-------	------
1900	26	61	1,586	65	1,031	39.65	2,987	82.9	247,759	42.3	104,764	35.07
1901	26	64	1,664	72	1,198	46.08	2,996	66.3	198,626	76.3	151,602	50.60
1902	26	64	1,664	67	1,115	42.88	3,078	95.5	293,918	46.9	137,730	44.75
1903	28	67	1,876	74	1,388	49.58	3,080	85.1	262,053	60.9	159,620	51.82
1904	30	78	2,340	70	1,638	54.60	3,172	111.1	352,268	44.8	157,646	49.70
1905	30	77	2,310	68	1,571	52.36	3,195	87.3	278,885	61.1	170,340	53.31
1906	32	75	2,400	74	1,776	55.50	3,244	102.2	331,685	50.6	167,795	51.72
1907	32	88	2,816	78	2,196	68.64	3,375	95.7	322,954	61.3	197,863	58.63
1908	32	79	2,528	77	1,947	60.83	3,503	86.2	302,000	69.7	210,618	60.13
1909	*32*	74	2,368	81	1,918	59.94	*3,669*	107.5	394,553	54.2	213,679	58.24
1909	*32*	*74*	*2,372*	-----	-----	------	*3,669*	*106.1*	*389,195*	-----	-------	------
1910	33	89	2,937	73	2,144	64.97	3,720	93.8	349,032	55.7	194,566	52.30
1911	31	48	1,488	108	1,607	51.84	3,619	80.9	292,737	79.9	233,778	64.60
1912	30	85	2,550	76	1,938	64.60	3,711	113.4	420,647	50.5	212,550	57.28
1913	30	80	2,400	82	1,968	65.60	3,668	90.4	331,525	68.7	227,903	62.13
1914	33	52	1,716	92	1,579	47.84	3,711	110.5	409,921	48.7	199,460	53.75
1915	35	90	3,150	73	2,300	65.70	3,734	96.3	359,721	61.7	221,992	59.45
1916	40	95	3,800	140	5,320	133.00	3,565	80.5	286,953	146.1	419,333	117.62
1917	50	90	4,500	143	6,435	128.70	4,384	100.8	442,168	122.8	542,774	123.81
1918	65	95	6,175	135	8,336	128.25	4,295	95.9	411,860	119.3	491,527	114.44
1919*	47	80	3,760	163	6,129	130.40	3,542	91.2	322,867	159.5	514,855	145.36
1919	*36*	*80*	*2,854*	-----	-----	------	*3,252*	*89.3*	*290,428*	-----	-------	------
1920	46	91	4,186	142	5,944	129.22	3,657	110.3	403,296	114.5	461,778	126.27
1921	46	88	4,048	143	5,789	125.84	3,941	91.8	361,659	110.1	398,362	101.08
1922**	48	94	4,512	101	4,557	94.94	4,331	104.2	451,185	58.2	262,608	60.63

* Revisions based on 1919 census. ** Subject to revision December, 1923.

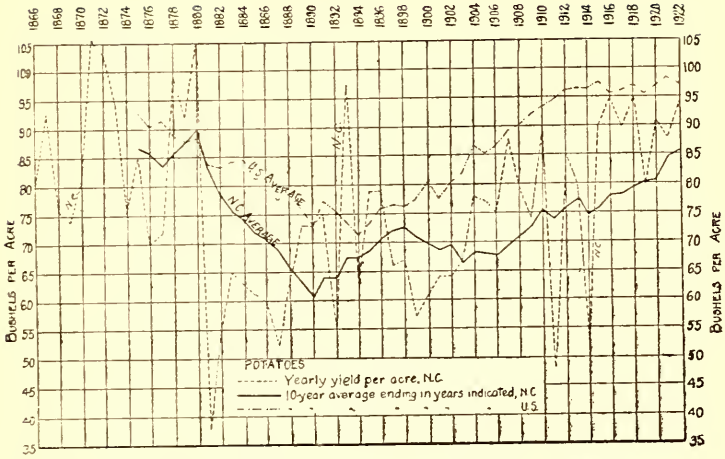


CHART 23.—IRISH POTATOES: YIELD PER ACRE, N. C. AND U. S.

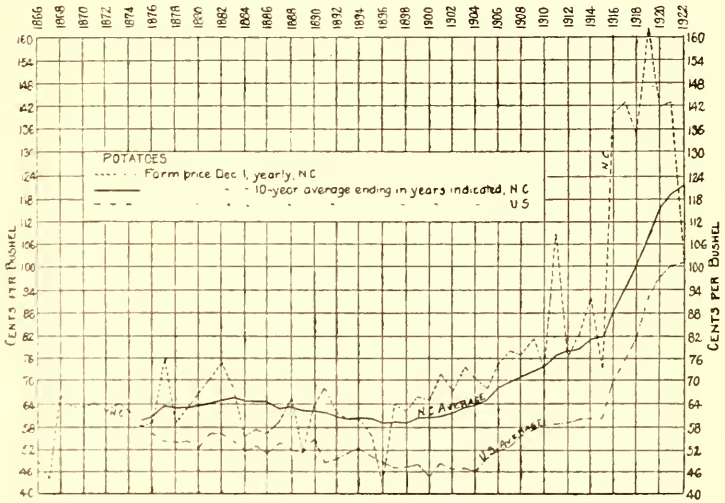


CHART 24.—IRISH POTATOES: FARM PRICE, N. C. AND U. S.

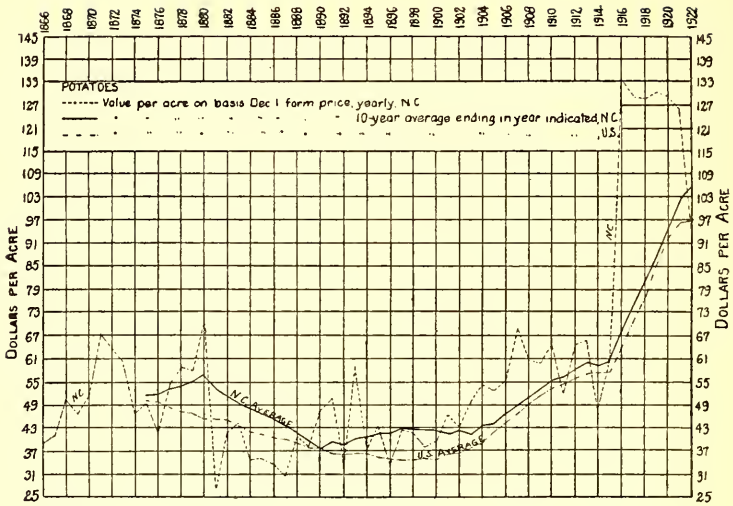


CHART 25.—IRISH POTATOES: VALUE PER ACRE, N. C. AND U. S.

large percentage advance in both the state and the United States in the price and in the value per acre of this crop. Comparing the two decades 1866-75 and 1913-22, we find for North Carolina a gain in farm price per bushel of 104.0 percent and for the United States a gain of 83.9 percent; while in value per acre the gain for North Carolina was 103.6 percent and for the United States 93.0 percent.

Sweet potatoes. In this crop we take our place among the five leading states, producing 10.4 percent of the total United States crop average for 1917-21; but this production represents only 2.7 percent of our aggregate crop values for the same years. Our average yield per acre (chart 26) has been uniformly above the United States average, and, comparing the decades 1866-75 and 1913-22, we have gained 7.7 percent in yield per acre while the United States has gained 4.6 percent. In farm price per bushel (chart 27), while our average has been lower than the United States average, we have gained in the period considered 57.0 percent while the United States has gained only 20.4 percent. The result is that in recent years our value per acre (chart 28) has risen above the United States average. Our gain in value per acre in the period considered has been 72.1 percent, while the gain for the United States as a whole has been 26.3 percent.

TABLE VI—SWEET POTATOES

Year	NORTH CAROLINA						UNITED STATES					
	Acr'ge Hary'f'd 1000 Acres	Av. Yield per Acre—Bus.	Production 1000 Bus.	Av. Farm Price bu. Dec. 1—Cts.	Farm Val. Dec. 1 1000 Dolls.	Val. Acre Basis Dec. 1 Farm Price—Dolls.	Acr'ge Hary'f'd 1000 Acres	Av. Yield per Acre—Bus.	Production 1000 Bus.	Av. Farm Price bu. Dec. 1—Cts.	Farm Val. Dec. 1 1000 Dolls.	Val. Acre Basis Dec. 1 Farm Price—Dolls.
1868	----	83	-----	66	-----	54.78	------	102.2	-------	79.0	-------	80.74
1869	----	76	-----	71	-----	53.96	------	78.7	-------	92.8	-------	73.03
1870	----	108	-----	60	-----	64.80	------	107.4	-------	82.1	-------	88.18
1871	----	101	-----	62	-----	62.62	------	99.0	-------	78.4	-------	77.62
1872	----	115	-----	49	-----	56.35	------	83.5	-------	79.7	-------	66.55
1873	----	98	-----	55	-----	53.90	------	97.2	-------	76.9	-------	74.75
1874	----	95	-----	55	-----	52.25	------	82.4	-------	76.1	-------	62.71
1875	----	90	-----	52	-----	46.80	------	89.0	-------	67.2	-------	59.81
1876	----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	------	-----	-------	-----	-------	------
1877	----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	------	-----	-------	-----	-------	------
1878	----	112	-----	-----	-----	------	------	98.9	-------	-----	-------	------
1879	----	94	-----	49	-----	46.06	------	99.4	-------	56.6	-------	51.17
1880	----	100	-----	45	-----	45.00	------	101.8	-------	51.5	-------	52.43
1881	----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	------	-----	-------	-----	-------	------
1882	----	95	-----	45	-----	42.75	------	96.2	-------	60.5	-------	58.20
1883	----	88	-----	46	-----	40.48	------	78.0	-------	57.1	-------	44.54
1884	----	78	-----	46	-----	35.88	------	78.8	-------	57.5	-------	45.31
1885	----	96	-----	41	-----	39.36	------	96.4	-------	50.3	-------	48.49
1886	----	96	-----	41	-----	39.36	------	87.5	-------	51.5	-------	45.06
1887	----	-----	-----	43	-----	------	------	89.8	-------	57.6	-------	46.54
1888	----	95	-----	43	-----	40.85	------	97.2	-------	47.9	-------	46.56
1889	----	95	-----	43	-----	40.85	------	87.2	-------	53.2	-------	46.39
1890	----	114	-----	40	-----	45.60	------	99.3	-------	53.8	-------	53.42
1891	----	101	-----	44	-----	44.44	------	88.5	-------	50.1	-------	44.34
1892	----	95	-----	-----	-----	------	------	88.0	-------	-----	-------	------
1893	----	104	-----	-----	-----	------	------	87.2	-------	-----	-------	------
1894	----	100	-----	37	-----	37.00	------	92.4	-------	45.5	-------	42.04
1895	----	89	-----	54	-----	48.06	------	79.1	-------	49.0	-------	38.76
1896	----	80	-----	32	-----	25.60	------	70.8	-------	44.3	-------	31.36
1897	----	80	-----	34	-----	27.20	------	72.0	-------	50.0	-------	36.00
1898	----	95	-----	-----	-----	------	------	98.3	-------	-----	-------	------
1899	*69*	*84*	5,782	40	2,313	34.40	*557*	*79.1*	*42,547*	52.9	22,476	41.11
1900	69	88	6,072	42	2,550	36.96	544	88.9	48,346	50.6	24,478	45.00
1901	71	87	6,177	46	2,841	40.02	547	81.7	44,697	57.5	25,720	47.02
1902	70	88	6,160	46	2,834	40.48	532	85.2	45,344	58.1	26,358	49.55
1903	72	97	6,984	45	3,143	43.65	548	89.2	48,870	58.3	28,478	51.97
1904	73	100	7,300	50	3,650	50.00	548	88.9	48,705	60.4	29,424	53.69
1905	73	95	6,935	47	3,259	44.65	551	92.6	51,034	58.3	29,734	53.96
1906	75	87	6,525	50	3,262	43.50	554	90.2	49,948	62.2	31,063	56.07
1907	78	99	7,020	60	4,212	54.00	565	88.2	49,813	70.0	34,858	61.70
1908	80	93	7,440	53	3,943	49.29	599	92.4	55,352	66.1	36,564	61.04
1909	*85*	*100*	8,493	57	4,841	56.43	*641*	*92.4*	*59,242*	69.4	41,052	61.76
1910	84	105	8,820	55	4,851	57.75	641	93.5	59,938	67.1	40,216	62.74
1911	77	86	6,622	63	4,172	54.18	605	90.1	54,538	75.5	41,202	68.10
1912	75	99	6,750	62	4,185	55.80	583	95.2	55,479	72.6	40,264	69.06
1913	80	100	8,000	61	4,880	61.00	625	94.5	59,057	72.6	42,884	68.61
1914	76	99	6,849	65	4,446	58.50	603	93.8	56,574	73.0	41,294	68.48
1915	85	105	8,925	56	4,998	58.80	731	103.5	75,639	62.1	46,980	64.27
1916	87	107	9,309	75	6,982	80.25	774	91.7	70,955	84.8	60,141	77.70
1917	90	95	8,550	105	8,978	99.75	919	91.2	83,822	110.8	92,916	101.11
1918	95	110	10,450	132	13,794	145.20	940	93.5	87,924	135.2	118,863	126.45
1919*	87	102	9,309	138	12,846	147.66	941	103.2	97,126	134.4	130,514	138.70
1920	90	104	10,296	114	11,737	118.56	992	104.8	103,925	113.4	117,834	118.78
1921	102	101	10,302	97	9,993	97.97	1,066	92.5	98,654	88.1	86,894	81.51
1922**	110	113	12,430	80	9,944	90.40	1,116	98.1	109,534	77.1	84,492	75.71

** Subject to revision December, 1923. * Revisions based on 1919 census.

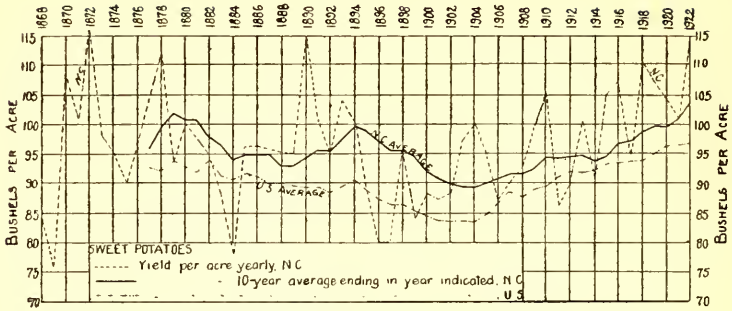


CHART 26.—SWEET POTATOES: YIELD PER ACRE, N. C. AND U. S.

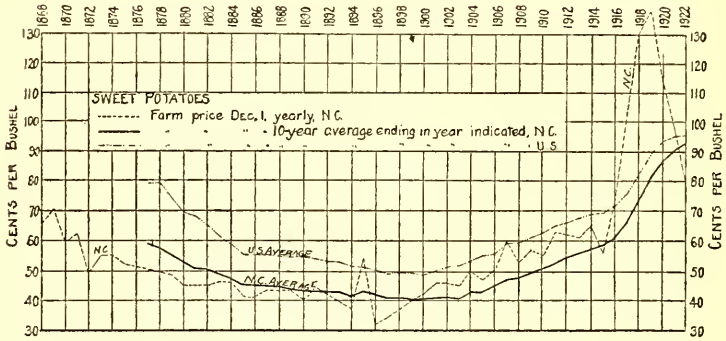


CHART 27.—SWEET POTATOES: FARM PRICE, N. C. AND U. S.

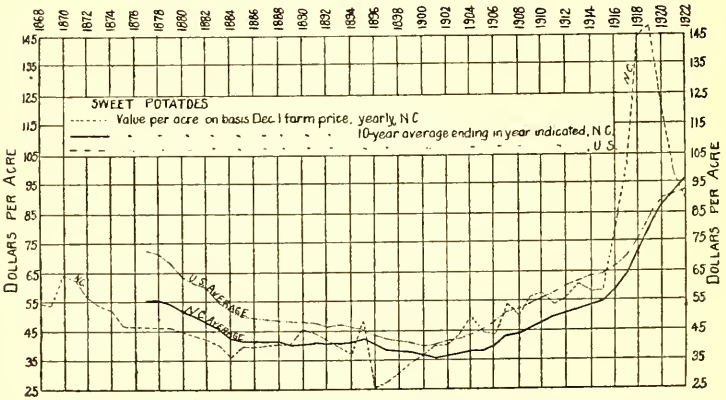


CHART 28.—SWEET POTATOES: VALUE PER ACRE, N. C. AND U. S.

TABLE VII—HAY (Tame)

Year	NORTH CAROLINA						UNITED STATES					
	Acr'ge Harv't'd 1000 Acres	Av. Yield per Acre—Tons	Production 1000 Tons	Av. Farm Price T. Dec. 1—Dolls	Farm Val.Dec.1 1000 Dolls.	Val. Acre Basis Dec. 1 Farm Price—Dolls.	Acr'ge Harv't'd 1000 Acres	Av. Yield per Acre—Tons	Production 1000 Tons	Av. Farm Price T. Dec. 1—Dolls	Farm Val.Dec.1 1000 Dolls.	Val. Acre Basis Dec. 1 Farm Price—Dolls.
1866	126	1.30	163	9.04	1,476	11.75	17,669	1.23	21,779	10.14	220,836	12.50
1867	119	1.50	179	8.64	1,546	12.96	20,021	1.31	26,277	10.21	268,301	13.40
1868	149	1.25	186	11.16	2,076	13.95	21,542	1.21	26,142	10.08	263,589	12.24
1869	111	1.44	160	9.60	1,535	13.82	18,591	1.42	26,420	10.18	268,933	14.47
1869	----	-----	*84*	-----	-----	------	------	-----	*27,316*	-----	-------	------
1870	121	1.40	169	10.30	1,740	14.42	19,862	1.22	24,525	12.47	305,743	15.39
1871	74	1.13	84	11.06	929	12.50	19,009	1.17	22,239	14.30	317,940	16.73
1872	75	1.20	90	12.53	1,128	15.04	20,319	1.17	23,813	12.94	308,025	15.16
1873	79	1.20	94	11.97	1,131	14.36	21,894	1.15	25,085	12.53	314,241	14.35
1874	84	1.25	105	13.37	1,401	16.71	21,770	1.15	25,134	11.94	300,222	13.79
1875	88	1.25	110	10.91	1,200	13.64	23,508	1.19	27,874	10.78	300,378	12.78
1876	93	1.25	116	10.19	1,184	12.74	25,283	1.22	30,867	8.97	276,991	10.96
1877	93	1.35	126	9.41	1,185	12.70	25,368	1.25	31,629	8.37	264,880	10.44
1878	93	1.43	133	9.66	1,285	13.81	26,931	1.47	39,608	7.20	285,016	10.58
1879	*102*	1.39	142	11.22	1,593	15.60	*30,631*	1.30	39,862	9.31	371,045	12.11
1879	*102*	-----	*90*	-----	-----	------	*30,631*	*1.15*	*35,151*	-----	-------	------
1880	74	1.53	114	10.55	1,199	16.14	25,864	1.23	31,925	11.65	371,811	14.38
1881	79	1.15	91	15.80	1,436	18.17	30,889	1.14	35,135	11.82	415,131	13.44
1882	81	1.19	97	11.18	1,087	13.30	32,340	1.18	38,138	9.73	371,170	11.48
1883	84	1.15	96	10.77	1,039	12.39	35,516	1.32	46,864	8.19	383,834	10.81
1884	81	1.30	106	10.60	1,122	13.78	38,572	1.26	48,470	8.17	396,139	10.27
1885	102	.95	97	11.68	1,129	11.10	39,850	1.12	44,732	8.71	389,753	9.78
1886	107	1.04	111	11.00	1,223	11.44	36,502	1.15	41,796	8.46	353,438	9.68
1887	139	1.15	160	10.57	1,689	12.16	37,665	1.10	41,454	9.97	413,440	10.98
1888	140	1.10	154	13.10	2,022	14.41	38,592	1.21	46,643	8.76	408,500	10.59
1889	*170*	1.00	170	11.30	1,921	11.30	*39,004*	1.26	49,181	7.76	381,481	9.78
1889	*170*	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	*39,004*	-----	-------	-----	-------	------
1890	170	1.35	230	11.91	2,739	16.08	40,038	1.23	49,057	8.18	401,111	10.02
1891	170	1.10	187	11.00	2,057	12.10	41,258	1.18	48,759	8.89	433,276	10.50
1892	180	1.20	216	10.55	2,279	12.66	42,191	1.17	49,238	8.95	440,710	10.45
1893	180	1.70	306	11.11	3,400	18.89	42,413	1.31	55,575	9.48	527,044	12.43
1894	180	1.45	261	10.93	2,853	15.85	42,772	1.18	50,468	8.96	452,079	10.57
1895	190	1.63	310	10.14	3,143	16.53	40,832	1.02	41,838	9.46	395,647	9.69
1896	190	1.26	239	10.75	2,569	13.54	40,978	1.33	54,380	7.48	406,957	9.93
1897	200	1.25	250	9.75	2,438	12.19	41,336	1.42	58,878	7.28	428,919	10.38
1898	200	1.70	340	9.30	3,162	15.81	43,120	1.55	66,772	6.63	442,905	10.27
1899	*204*	1.50	306	10.10	3,091	15.15	*43,127*	1.33	57,450	8.20	470,844	10.92
1899	*204*	*1.03*	*211*	-----	-----	------	*43,127*	*1.25*	*53,828*	-----	-------	------
1900	200	1.41	282	11.20	3,158	15.79	42,070	1.27	53,231	9.72	517,399	12.30
1901	210	1.66	349	10.80	3,769	17.93	42,066	1.33	55,819	9.91	553,328	13.15
1902	220	1.44	317	12.25	3,883	17.64	42,962	1.52	65,296	9.19	599,781	13.96
1903	230	1.60	368	13.42	4,939	21.47	43,400	1.57	68,154	9.35	637,485	14.69
1904	240	1.72	413	14.56	6,013	25.04	44,645	1.55	69,192	8.91	616,369	13.81
1905	250	1.60	400	12.80	5,120	20.48	45,991	1.59	72,973	8.59	627,023	13.63
1906	260	1.54	400	15.00	6,000	23.10	47,891	1.39	66,341	10.43	692,116	14.45
1907	270	1.50	405	16.50	6,682	24.75	49,098	1.47	72,261	11.78	850,915	17.33
1908	300	1.50	450	13.50	6,075	20.25	51,196	1.53	78,440	9.14	716,644	14.00
1909	*315*	1.38	435	14.40	6,264	19.87	*51,041*	1.46	74,384	10.58	786,722	15.41
1909	*315*	*.95*	*299*	-----	-----	------	*51,041*	*1.35*	*68,833*	-----	-------	------
1910	315	1.50	472	14.60	6,891	21.90	51,015	1.36	69,378	12.14	842,252	16.51
1911	290	1.05	304	17.00	5,168	17.85	48,240	1.14	54,916	14.29	784,926	16.27
1912	293	1.30	381	16.70	6,363	21.71	49,530	1.47	72,691	11.79	856,695	17.30
1913	320	1.31	419	16.50	6,914	21.62	48,954	1.31	64,116	12.43	797,077	16.28
1914	320	1.15	368	17.10	6,293	19.66	49,145	1.43	70,071	11.12	779,068	15.85
1915	350	1.85	648	16.50	10,692	30.52	51,108	1.68	85,920	10.63	913,644	17.88
1916	440	1.30	572	17.50	10,010	22.75	55,721	1.64	91,192	11.22	1,022,930	18.36
1917	506	1.13	572	19.70	11,268	22.26	55,203	1.51	83,308	17.09	1,423,766	25.79
1918	640	1.20	768	21.00	16,128	25.20	55,755	1.37	76,660	20.13	1,543,494	27.68
1919*	682	1.02	696	24.20	16,843	24.68	56,888	1.52	86,359	20.08	1,734,085	30.48
1919	----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	------	-----	-------	-----	-------	------
1920	640	1.05	672	23.00	15,456	24.15	58,101	1.51	87,855	17.76	1,560,235	26.85
1921	690	1.30	897	19.80	17,761	25.74	58,769	1.40	82,379	12.11	997,527	16.97
1922**	800	1.40	1,120	18.20	20,384	25.48	61,208	1.58	96,687	12.59	1,217,044	19.88

* Revisions based on 1919 census. ** Subject to revision December, 1923.

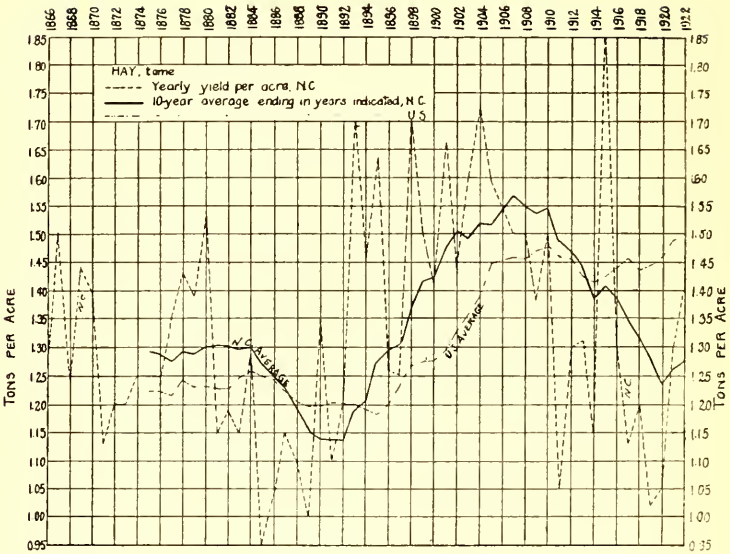


CHART 29.—HAY, TAME: YIELD PER ACRE, N. C. AND U. S.

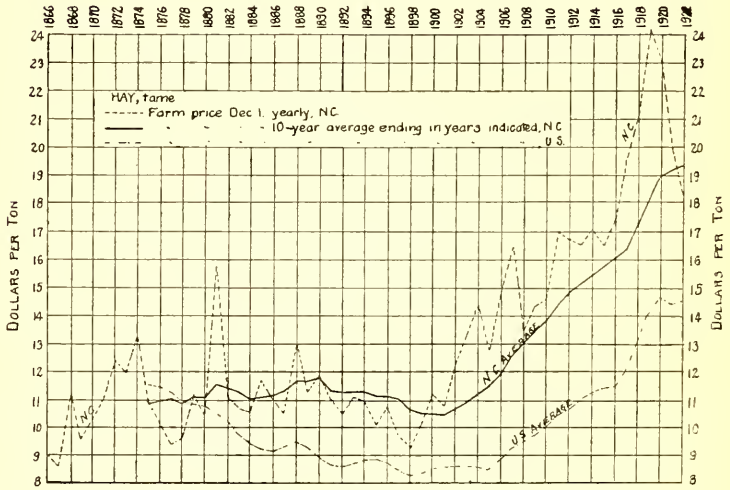


CHART 30.—HAY, TAME: FARM PRICE, N. C. AND U. S.

Hay. There have been many ups and downs in the average yield per acre (chart 29) of tame hay in North Carolina, though the general trend for the United States has been in the main steadily upward. We are at present on the upward path, but there has been a big decline from our levels around 1904, when we reached our top notch. Comparing the averages for 1913-22 and 1866-75, we find that North Carolina has declined in yield per acre 1.6 percent while the United States has gained 22.2 percent. We shall have to change this condition when we increase our livestock to the extent that is becoming urgently necessary. Our farm price per ton of hay (chart 30) has been almost constantly considerably higher than the United States average, and has increased 78.2 percent, while the United States has gained in price of hay per ton only 25.6 percent. Consequently our value per acre of hay (chart 31) has been almost uniformly much above the United States average and our gain, comparing the decades 1866-75 and 1913-22, has been 74.0 per-

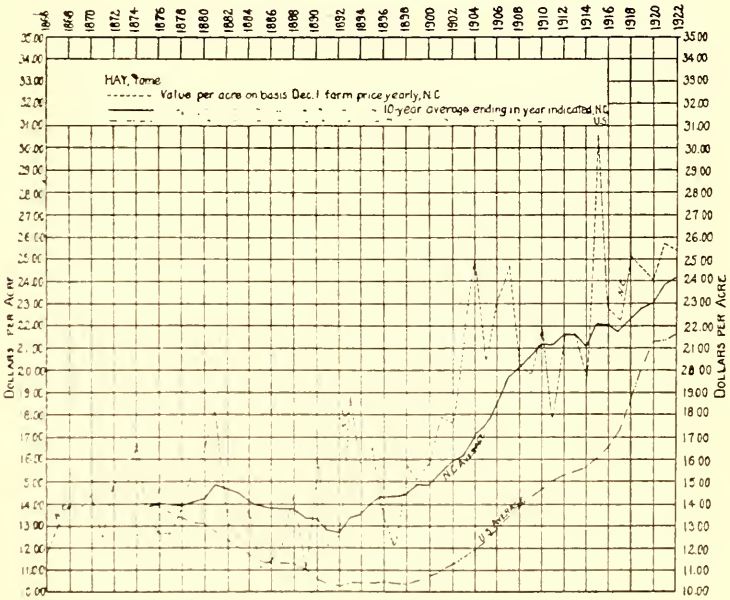


CHART 31.—HAY, TAME: VALUE PER ACRE, N. C. AND U. S.

TABLE VIII—COTTON*

Year	NORTH CAROLINA						UNITED STATES					
	Acr'ge Picked 1000 Acres	Av. Yield per Acre—Lbs.	Production 1000 Bales	Av. Farm Price Lb.Dec.1—Cts.	Farm Val.Dec.1 1000 Dolls.	Val. Acre Basis Dec. 1 Farm Price—Dolls.	Acr'ge Picked 1000 Acres	Av. Yield per Acre—Lbs.	Production 1000 Bales	Av. Farm Price Lb.Dec.1—Cts.	Farm Val.Dec.1 1000 Dolls.	Val. Acre Basis Dec. 1 Farm Price—Dolls.
1866	386	250	91	-----	------	------	7,599	129.0	1,750	-----	------	------
1867	559	160	150	-----	------	------	7,828	189.8	2,340	-----	------	------
1868	380	176	140	-----	------	------	6,790	192.2	2,380	-----	------	------
1869	418	145	*145*	-----	------	------	7,743	196.9	*3,012*	-----	------	-----
1870	452	175	170	-----	------	------	8,885	198.9	3,800	-----	------	------
1871	388	143	127	-----	------	------	7,558	148.2	2,553	-----	------	------
1872	451	173	180	-----	------	------	8,483	188.7	3,920	-----	------	------
1873	514	159	176	-----	------	------	9,510	179.7	3,683	-----	------	------
1874	609	172	238	-----	------	------	11,764	147.5	3,941	-----	------	------
1875	621	156	218	-----	------	------	11,934	190.6	5,123	-----	------	------
1876	609	184	210	9.0	10,085	16.56	11,677	167.8	4,438	9.0	174,724	14.96
1877	585	186	242	-----	------	------	12,133	163.8	4,370	-----	------	------
1878	590	169	222	8.4	8,383	14.20	12,344	191.2	5,244	8.2	192,515	15.59
1879	*893*	156	*390*	11.0	15,327	17.16	*14,480*	181.0	*5,755*	10.3	269,305	18.60
1880	974	198	411	10.0	19,276	19.80	15,951	184.5	6,343	9.8	289,083	18.12
1881	1,061	150	380	-----	------	------	16,711	149.8	5,456	-----	------	------
1882	1,051	194	463	9.5	19,362	18.43	16,277	185.7	6,957	9.1	275,513	16.93
1883	1,051	177	398	9.3	17,293	16.46	16,778	164.8	5,701	9.1	250,977	14.96
1884	1,061	175	404	9.3	17,269	16.28	17,440	153.8	5,682	9.2	246,575	14.14
1885	1,072	157	407	8.5	14,301	13.34	18,301	164.4	6,575	8.4	251,775	13.76
1886	1,072	157	366	8.3	13,965	13.03	18,455	169.5	6,446	8.1	251,856	13.65
1887	1,066	191	444	8.7	17,719	16.62	18,641	182.7	7,020	8.5	290,901	15.61
1888	1,072	165	365	8.5	15,030	14.02	19,059	180.4	6,941	8.5	292,139	15.33
1889	*1,147*	98	*336*	8.5	9,556	8.33	*20,175*	159.7	*7,473*	8.5	275,249	13.64
1890	1,082	182	490	8.7	17,135	15.83	19,512	187.0	8,674	8.6	313,360	16.06
1891	1,017	178	415	7.4	13,399	13.17	19,059	179.4	9,018	7.2	247,633	12.99
1892	773	183	300	8.6	12,167	15.74	15,911	209.2	6,664	8.3	277,194	17.42
1893	1,180	174	400	7.2	14,783	12.53	19,525	149.9	7,493	7.0	204,983	10.50
1894	1,297	210	455	5.0	13,613	10.50	23,688	195.3	9,476	4.6	212,335	8.96
1895	1,050	168	398	8.2	14,467	13.78	20,185	155.6	7,161	7.6	238,503	11.82
1896	1,229	208	522	6.7	17,096	13.94	23,273	184.9	8,533	6.7	286,169	12.30
1897	1,302	184	647	7.0	16,775	12.88	24,320	182.7	10,898	6.7	296,816	12.20
1898	1,312	227	630	5.9	17,568	13.39	24,967	220.6	11,189	5.7	315,449	12.63
1899*	1,087	193	440	7.2	15,854	13.90	24,275	183.8	9,345	7.0	326,215	13.41
1900	1,143	199	477	9.4	22,432	18.71	24,933	194.4	10,123	9.2	463,310	18.58
1901	1,395	142	416	7.2	14,969	10.22	26,774	170.0	9,510	7.0	334,088	12.48
1902	1,111	236	550	8.0	21,982	18.88	27,175	187.3	10,631	7.6	403,718	14.86
1903	1,201	210	529	10.6	28,021	12.26	27,052	174.3	9,851	10.5	516,763	19.10
1904	1,439	233	704	9.2	32,373	21.44	31,215	205.9	13,438	9.0	603,438	19.33
1905	1,230	240	619	10.8	33,434	25.92	27,110	186.6	10,575	10.8	569,791	21.02
1906	1,374	201	579	9.5	27,518	19.10	31,374	202.5	13,274	9.6	635,534	20.26
1907	1,408	205	605	10.2	30,871	20.91	29,660	179.1	11,107	10.4	575,226	19.39
1908	1,458	211	647	9.0	29,113	18.99	32,444	194.9	13,242	8.7	575,092	17.73
1909	1,359	210	601	13.9	41,742	29.19	30,938	154.3	10,005	13.9	697,681	22.55
1910	1,478	227	706	14.1	49,783	32.01	32,403	170.7	11,609	14.1	820,407	25.32
1911	1,624	315	1,076	8.8	47,336	27.72	36,045	207.7	15,693	8.8	687,888	19.08
1912	1,545	267	866	12.2	52,805	32.57	34,283	190.9	13,703	11.9	817,055	23.83
1913	1,576	239	793	12.6	49,930	30.11	37,089	182.0	14,156	12.2	862,708	23.26
1914	1,527	290	931	6.9	32,107	20.01	36,832	209.2	16,135	6.8	549,036	14.91
1915	1,282	260	699	11.2	39,172	29.12	31,412	170.3	11,192	11.3	631,460	20.10
1916	1,451	215	655	19.4	63,466	41.71	34,985	156.6	11,450	19.6	1,122,295	32.08
1917	1,515	194	618	27.7	85,591	53.74	33,841	159.7	11,302	27.7	1,566,198	46.28
1918	1,600	268	898	26.4	118,504	70.75	36,008	159.6	12,041	27.6	1,663,633	46.20
1919	1,490	266	830	35.2	146,232	93.63	33,566	161.5	11,421	35.6	2,034,658	60.62
1920	1,587	275	925	14.5	67,045	39.88	35,878	178.4	13,440	13.9	933,658	26.02
1921	1,403	264	776	16.4	63,650	43.30	30,509	124.5	7,954	16.2	643,933	21.05
1922**	1,626	250	852	24.5	104,370	61.25	33,742	141.6	9,964	23.8	1,192,461	35.21

* From 1899 to 1921 production figures are census returns from ginners.

** Subject to revision.

cent, while the United States gain in value per acre of this crop has been 53.4 percent. These high prices for hay in North Carolina account for the fact that while our hay production in 1917-21 constituted only nine-tenths of one percent of the entire United States crop the value of our crop represented in these years 3.7 percent of our aggregate crop values.

Cotton. Conditions with regard to our cotton crop are changing so radically and so rapidly that it is impossible to forecast the future from the past. In 1917-21 our cotton crop constituted 7.2 percent of the United States total cotton crop, and the value of our cotton crop was 22.8 percent of our aggregate crop values. Furthermore in the last two years we have been among the leading five states in the production of cotton—not because of gains on our part, but because of greater losses on the part of states that have succumbed more completely to the boll weevil than we have as yet. But that our history in this crop will paral-

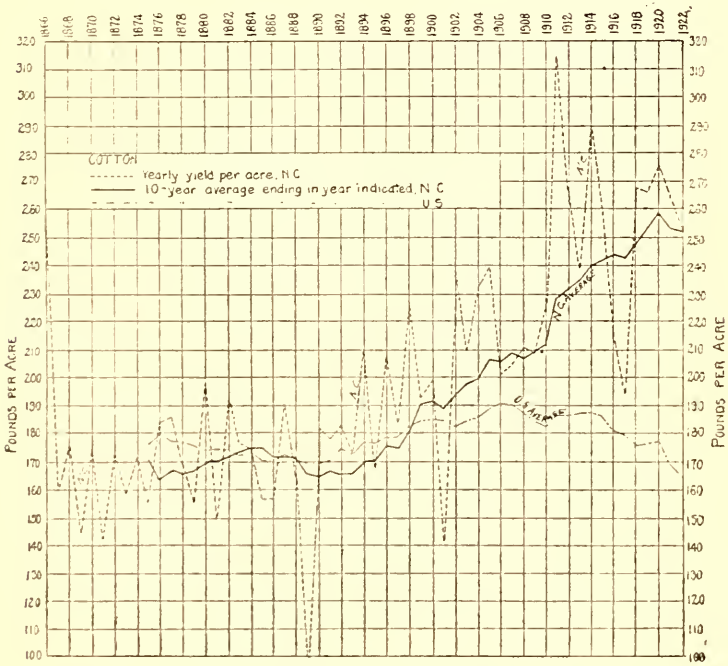


CHART 32.—COTTON: YIELD PER ACRE, N. C. AND U. S.

lel that of the other cotton states when struck by the boll weevil, can hardly be doubted. Chart 32 shows the trend of our yield per acre mounting steadily and rapidly almost without break until 1920, but the decline since that date is ominous. It sounds the crack of doom unless we reorganize our farming system, improve our marketing methods, and raise our level in livestock and dairy farming.

Comparing the decades 1866-75 and 1913-22, we will be seen to have gained in per-acre yield of cotton 47.4 percent, while the United States has declined 6.7 percent in per-acre yield.

The cotton market is a world market, consequently prices in North Carolina and the United States have kept very closely together (chart 33). The gain in both the state and the United States in price per pound in the period considered has been close to 108 percent. Because of our high yields, however, our gain in value per acre (chart 34) has been 192.5 percent, while the United States gain has been 105.1 percent.

But this it must be borne in mind is past history, and the future is all unknown.

Tobacco. Unlike our cotton yield, our tobacco yield per acre is by no means high (chart 35). Moreover, a comparison of the two decades 1866-75 and 1913-22 shows that we have gained only 9.0 percent in yield per acre, while the United States gain is 12.5 percent. It is to our large tobacco *acreage* that we owe our position among the five leading tobacco states, and our production of 23.2 percent of the total United States crop on an average for the years 1917-21. This large production brought the value of our tobacco crop in these years up to over a quarter of our aggregate state crop values (25.7 percent).

Our price per pound has been uniformly somewhat above the United States price per pound (chart 36); but, because of our comparatively low yield per acre, our value per acre (chart 37) has been until recent years considerably below the United States average. However, within the last five years our gains in farm price per pound have been such as to put us above the United States average in value per acre. Comparing the decades 1866-75 and 1913-22, North Carolina is found to have gained in price per pound 134.6 percent, and the United States 120.1 percent; and in

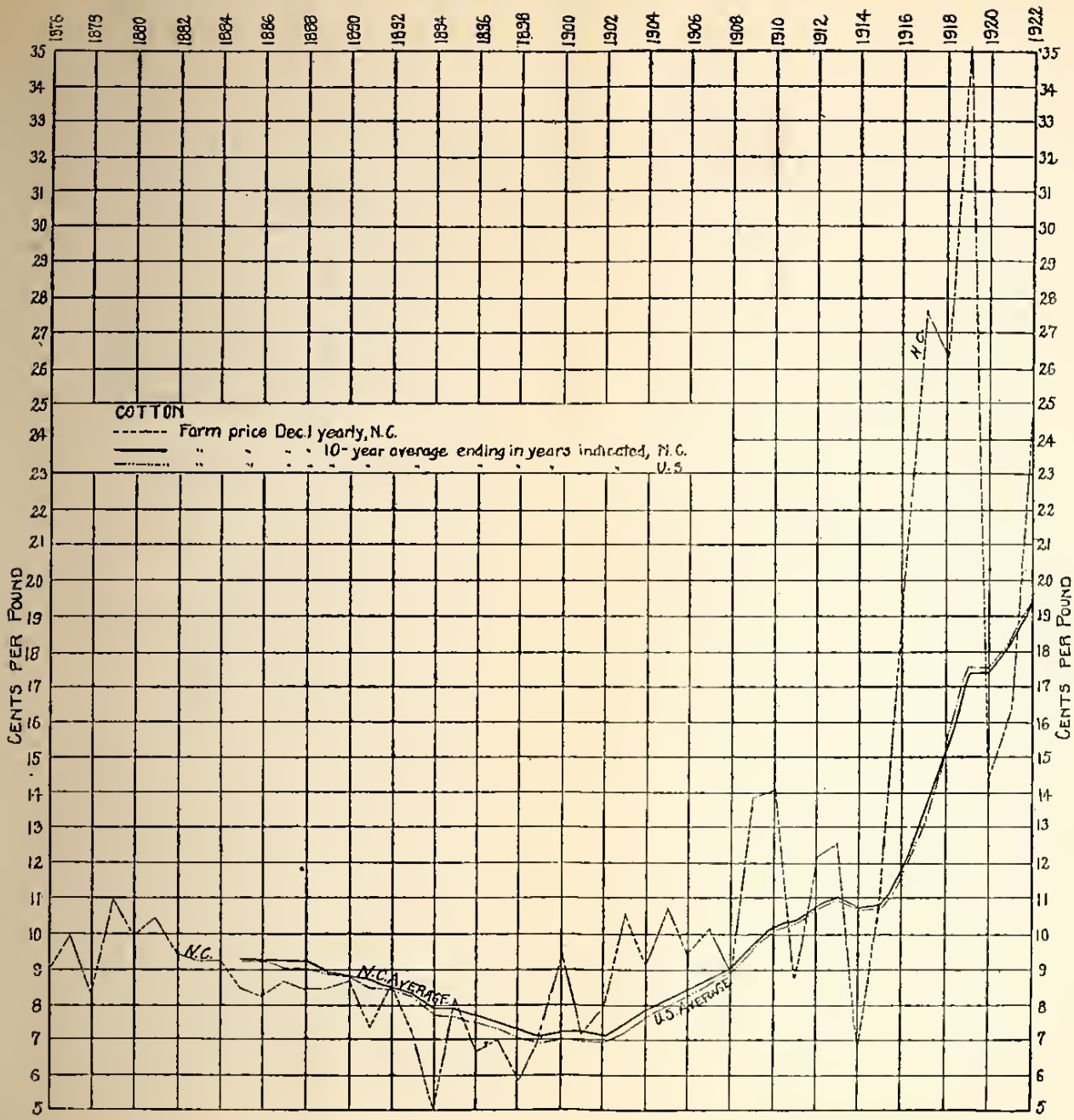
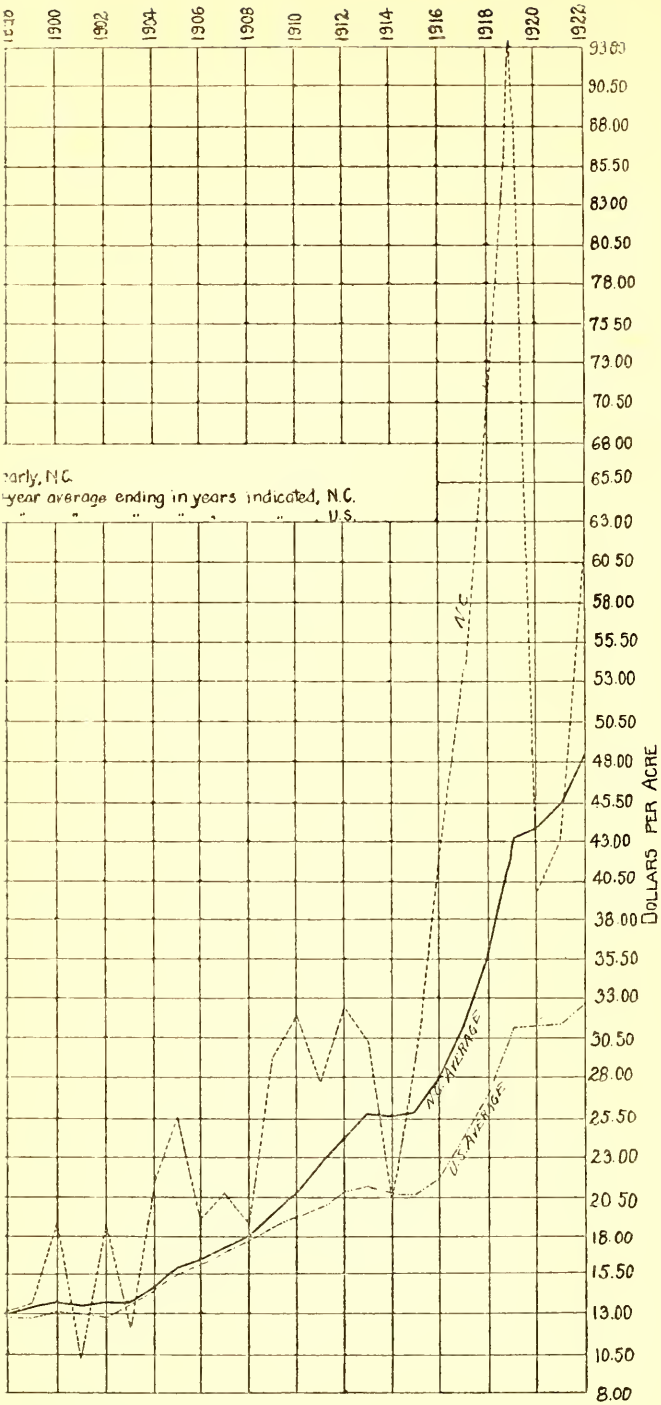


CHART 33.—COTTON: FARM PRICE, N. C. AND U. S., 1876-1922



PER ACRE, N. C. AND U. S., 1876-1922

TABLE IX—TOBACCO

Year	NORTH CAROLINA						UNITED STATES					
	Acr'ge Harv't'd 1000 Acres	Av. Yield per Acre—Lbs.	Production 1000 Lbs.	Av. Farm Price Lb. Dec. 1—Cts.	Farm Val. Dec. 1 1000 Dolls.	Val. Acre Basis Dec. 1 Farm Price—Dolls.	Acr'ge Harv't'd 1000 Acres	Av. Yield per Acre—Lbs.	Production 1000 Lbs.	Av. Farm Price Lb. Dec. 1—Cts.	Farm Val. Dec. 1 1000 Dolls.	Val. Acre Basis Dec. 1 Farm Price—Dolls.
1866	----	683	------	14.3	------	97.67	------	735.8	------	9.6	------	71.91
1867	----	652	------	12.4	------	80.85	------	634.6	------	9.4	------	59.82
1868	----	657	------	12.4	------	81.47	------	751.4	------	9.3	------	69.81
1869	----	508	------	10.9	------	55.37	------	569.1	------	9.3	------	53.05
1870	----	586	------	12.7	------	74.42	------	757.9	------	9.6	------	72.61
1871	----	599	------	9.3	------	55.71	------	750.3	------	8.8	------	66.40
1872	----	666	------	8.9	------	59.27	------	821.8	------	9.2	------	75.98
1873	----	591	------	8.3	------	49.05	------	775.3	------	7.6	------	59.10
1874	----	330	------	14.4	------	47.52	------	633.2	------	11.8	------	74.79
1875	----	500	------	8.5	------	42.50	------	678.6	------	7.0	------	47.32
1876	----	550	------	8.2	------	45.10	------	705.0	------	6.8	------	47.97
1877	----	-----	------	-----	------	------	------	-----	------	-----	------	------
1878	----	620	------	6.0	------	37.20	------	723.1	------	5.6	------	40.70
1879	----	556	------	7.0	------	38.92	------	795.1	------	5.8	------	46.18
1880	----	565	------	9.0	------	50.85	------	740.7	------	8.2	------	60.44
1881	----	443	------	13.5	------	59.80	------	696.2	------	9.6	------	67.11
1882	----	500	------	12.0	------	60.00	------	764.1	------	8.4	------	64.32
1883	----	484	------	12.5	------	60.50	------	706.9	------	9.0	------	63.34
1884	----	501	------	11.5	------	57.62	------	747.2	------	8.2	------	60.94
1885	----	489	------	10.6	------	50.88	------	747.8	------	7.7	------	57.49
1886	----	420	------	9.5	------	39.90	------	709.9	------	7.4	------	52.61
1887	----	485	------	10.0	------	48.50	------	645.2	------	10.6	------	68.44
1888	----	451	------	8.0	------	33.82	------	757.1	------	7.7	------	58.43
1889	----	375	------	11.0	------	48.73	------	645.0	------	7.1	------	46.58
1890	----	560	------	11.0	------	61.60	------	722.8	------	8.3	------	59.34
1891	----	490	------	9.6	------	47.04	------	747.4	------	8.5	------	63.77
1892	----	485	------	9.5	------	46.08	------	687.6	------	9.3	------	63.93
1893	----	509	------	8.0	------	40.72	------	687.1	------	8.1	------	55.70
1894	----	662	------	9.0	------	59.58	------	777.4	------	6.8	------	53.07
1895	----	800	------	9.2	------	73.60	------	775.4	------	7.2	------	56.12
1896	----	510	------	8.0	------	40.80	------	677.6	------	6.0	------	40.79
1897	----	550	------	-----	------	------	------	645.9	------	-----	------	------
1898	----	550	------	-----	------	------	------	745.4	------	-----	------	------
1899	----	500	------	-----	------	36.96	------	728.5	------	-----	------	51.99
1899	*203*	*628*	*127,503*	6.6	8,415	------	*1,101*	*788.5*	*868,113*	7.2	62,104	------
1900	193	618	119,505	7.0	8,096	43.26	1,046	778.0	814,345	6.6	53,661	51.28
1901	189	560	105,808	9.0	9,714	50.40	1,039	788.0	818,953	7.1	58,283	56.08
1902	219	650	142,521	7.0	9,976	45.50	1,031	797.3	821,824	7.0	57,564	55.85
1903	215	627	134,729	6.3	8,488	39.50	1,038	786.3	815,972	6.8	55,515	53.50
1904	144	685	98,618	8.6	8,481	58.91	806	819.0	660,461	8.1	53,383	66.20
1905	137	608	83,156	8.8	7,318	53.50	776	815.6	633,034	8.5	53,519	68.96
1906	120	580	69,808	10.0	6,981	58.00	796	857.2	682,429	10.0	68,233	85.71
1907	161	625	100,875	11.0	11,096	68.75	821	850.5	698,126	10.2	71,411	87.00
1908	200	670	134,000	10.5	14,070	70.35	875	820.2	718,061	10.3	74,130	84.68
1909	240	600	144,000	-----	------	57.00	1,180	804.3	949,357	-----	------	81.10
1909	*222*	*626*	*138,813*	9.5	13,187	------	*1,295*	*815.3*	*1,055,765*	10.1	106,599	------
1910	200	600	120,000	10.6	12,720	63.60	1,366	807.7	1,103,415	9.3	102,142	74.77
1911	140	710	99,400	11.6	11,530	82.36	1,013	893.7	905,109	9.4	85,210	84.13
1912	179	620	110,980	16.0	17,757	99.20	1,226	785.5	962,855	10.8	104,063	84.89
1913	250	670	167,500	18.5	30,988	123.95	1,216	784.3	953,734	12.8	122,481	100.72
1914	265	650	172,250	11.5	19,809	74.75	1,224	845.7	1,034,679	9.8	101,411	82.89
1915	320	620	198,400	11.2	22,221	69.44	1,370	775.4	1,062,237	9.1	96,281	70.28
1916	320	550	176,000	20.0	35,200	110.00	1,413	816.0	1,153,278	14.7	169,672	120.05
1917	380	630	239,400	31.5	75,411	198.45	1,518	823.1	1,249,276	24.0	300,449	197.95
1918	468	705	329,940	35.1	115,809	247.46	1,647	873.7	1,439,071	28.0	402,264	244.23
1919*	528	616	325,248	53.6	174,333	330.18	1,951	751.1	1,465,481	39.0	570,868	292.60
1919	*459*	*610*	*280,163*	-----	------	------	*1,864*	*736.6*	*1,372,993*	-----	------	------
1920	625	694	433,750	25.3	109,739	175.58	1,880	807.3	1,582,225	21.2	335,675	171.26
1921	450	561	252,450	26.0	65,637	145.86	1,427	749.6	1,069,693	19.9	212,728	149.07
1922**	515	596	306,940	30.3	93,003	180.59	1,725	768.0	1,324,840	23.1	306,179	177.50

* Revisions based on 1919 census. ** Subject to revision December, 1923.

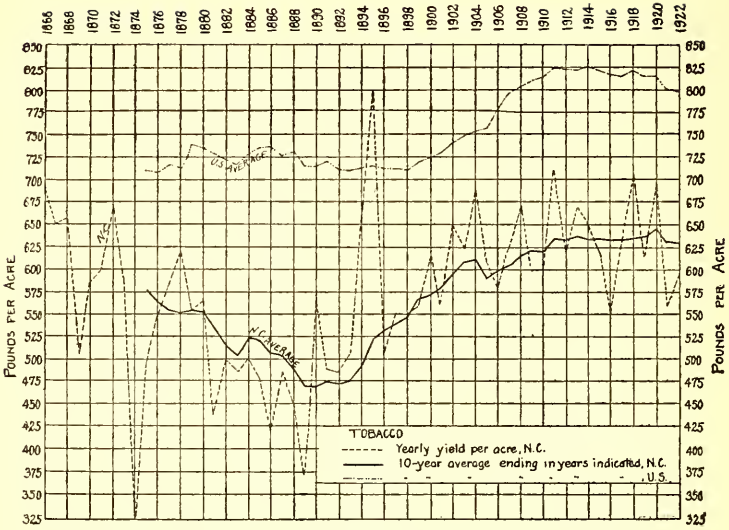


CHART 35.—TOBACCO: YIELD PER ACRE, N. C. AND U. S.

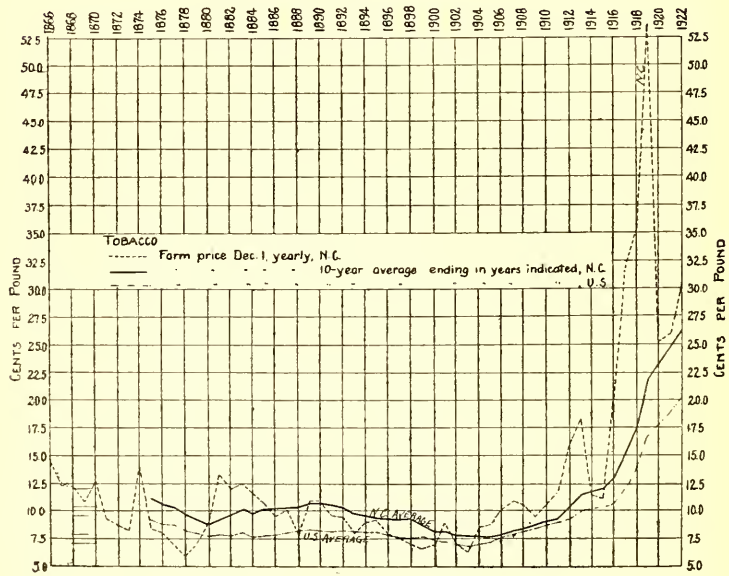


CHART 36.—TOBACCO: FARM PRICE, N. C. AND U. S.

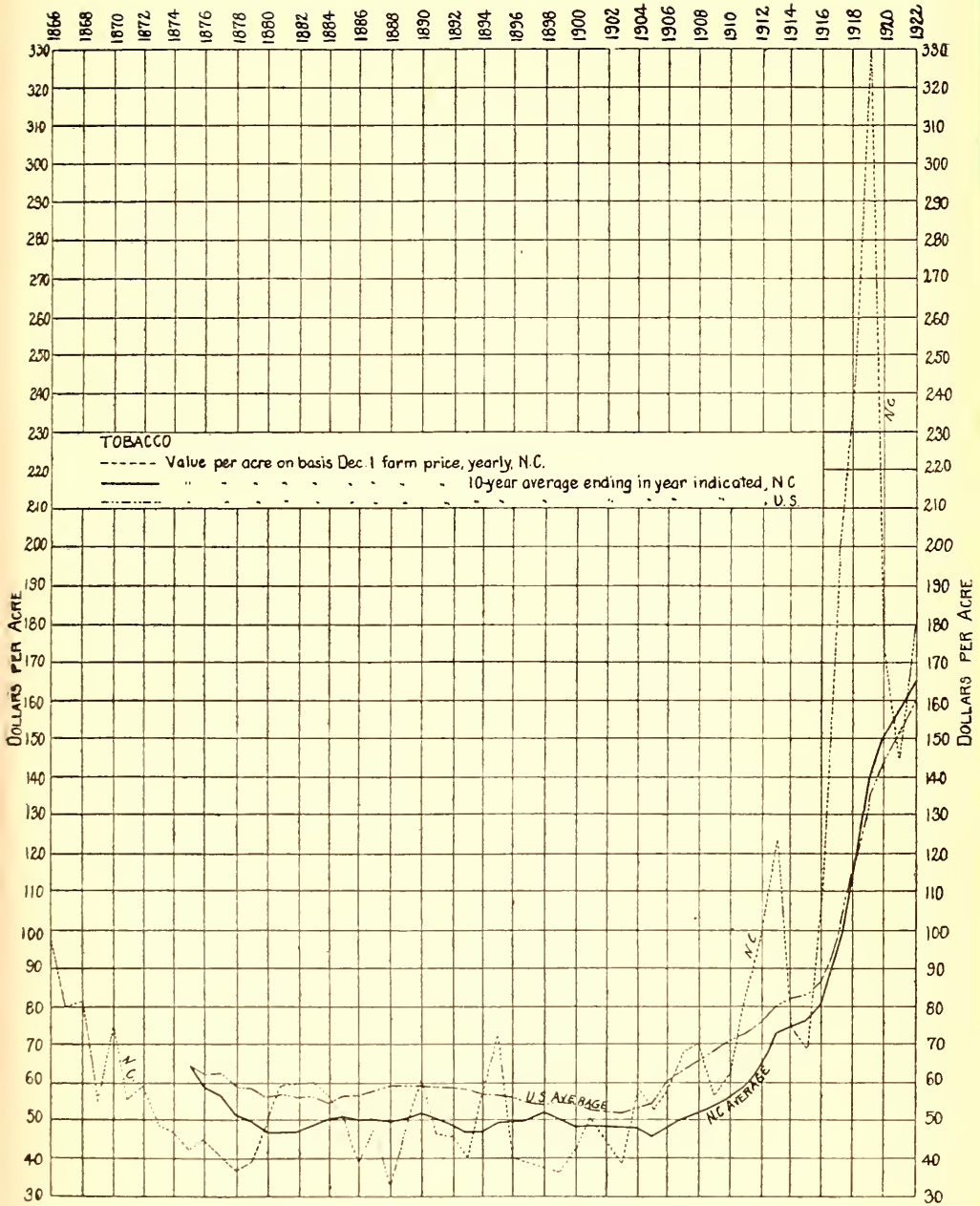


CHART 37.—TOBACCO: VALUE PER ACRE, N. C. AND U. S.

value per acre North Carolina has gained 157.3 percent and the United States only 146.9 percent.

Our tobacco future like our cotton future is problematic, and we would do well not to build too confidently on continued prosperity sourced predominantly in this crop.

5. *Other Crops.* Other crops than the eight crops already considered constitute a little over a fifth (20.4 percent) of the aggregate (hypothetical) crop values in North Carolina on an average for the five-year period 1917-21 (chart 5). For these other crops statistics back to 1866 are not available except for rye and buckwheat; and the value of rye and buckwheat in North Carolina is so small that they have not been included in the detailed tables and charts of this bulletin. Rye represented only two-tenths of one percent of our aggregate crop values in the five-year period 1917-21 (which includes the war period of increased grain production), and buckwheat represented a much smaller quantity even than this.

Of considerably greater importance is the value of our peanut crop. We stand among the first five states in the production of peanuts; but comparable statistics for this crop have been compiled only since 1916. On an average for the five-year period 1917-21, the value of our peanuts amounted to nearly ten and three-quarters million dollars, and this represented two and a half percent of our aggregate crop values and an eighth of the value of all the crops other than those which have been tabulated and charted in this bulletin.

Cowpeas, soy beans, and sorghum sirup also represent appreciable percentages in our crop values.

Fruit and truck crops have not been reported statistically in a way that makes it possible to include them in tables covering any considerable number of years. They are very important in particular localities, but do not represent large proportions of our aggregate crop values.

II. LIVESTOCK

The subject of our livestock becomes increasingly important as our production of cash crops becomes endangered by boll-weevil ravages and other uncertainties. It may even be to our advantage to have our attention forcibly directed to this mat-

TABLE X—HORSES AND MULES ON FARMS

	HORSES						MULES					
	NORTH CAROLINA			UNITED STATES			NORTH CAROLINA			UNITED STATES		
Jan. 1	Number Thousands	Price per head Jan. 1—Dols.	Farm Val. Jan. 1—1M Dols.	Number Thousands	Price per head Jan. 1—Dols.	Farm Val. Jan. 1—1M Dols.	Number Thousands	Price per head Jan. 1—Dols.	Farm Val. Jan. 1—1M Dols.	Number Thousands	Price per head Jan. 1—Dols.	Farm Val. Jan. 1—1M Dols.
1867	99	57.81	5,749	5,401	59.05	318,924	33	63.37	2,063	822	66.94	55,048
1868	98	50.69	4,990	5,757	54.27	312,416	33	58.87	1,936	856	56.04	47,954
1869	98	67.77	6,672	6,333	62.57	396,222	34	83.16	2,789	922	79.23	73,027
1870	126	76.46	9,595	8,249	67.43	556,251	44	96.21	4,195	1,180	90.42	106,654
*1870**	*103*	-----	-----	*7,145*	-----	-------	*51*	-----	------	*1,125*	-----	------
1871	127	81.67	10,348	8,702	71.14	619,039	44	103.37	4,590	1,242	91.98	114,272
1872	130	82.99	10,830	8,991	67.41	606,111	46	101.76	4,650	1,276	87.14	111,222
1873	132	80.33	10,587	9,222	66.39	612,273	48	99.84	4,742	1,310	85.15	111,546
1874	132	76.90	10,135	9,334	65.15	608,073	48	93.53	4,527	1,339	81.35	108,953
1875	133	70.23	9,348	9,504	61.10	580,708	49	85.43	4,212	1,394	71.89	100,197
1876	140	65.82	9,195	9,935	57.29	557,747	52	72.47	3,747	1,414	66.46	94,001
1877	141	65.15	9,187	10,155	55.83	567,017	53	68.46	3,608	1,444	64.07	92,482
1878	142	65.28	9,296	10,330	56.63	584,999	55	68.64	3,796	1,638	62.03	101,579
1879	145	56.54	8,210	10,939	52.36	572,712	74	60.13	4,450	1,713	56.00	95,942
1880	147	59.22	8,688	11,202	54.75	613,297	75	61.65	4,605	1,730	61.26	105,948
*1880**	*134*	-----	-----	*10,357*	-----	-------	*82*	-----	------	*1,813*	-----	------
1881	147	67.31	9,874	11,430	58.44	667,954	75	74.64	5,576	1,721	69.79	120,096
1882	134	65.30	8,773	10,522	58.53	615,825	82	73.64	6,059	1,835	71.35	130,945
1883	136	72.30	9,811	10,838	70.59	765,041	82	91.66	7,542	1,871	79.49	148,732
1884	137	77.21	10,582	11,170	74.64	833,784	85	84.32	7,146	1,914	84.22	161,215
1885	141	77.71	10,970	11,565	73.70	852,283	86	84.47	7,230	1,973	82.38	162,497
1886	143	74.53	10,626	12,078	71.27	860,823	86	83.19	7,192	2,053	79.60	163,381
1887	143	75.14	10,713	12,497	72.15	901,686	88	79.32	6,994	2,117	78.91	167,058
1888	150	74.59	11,167	13,173	71.82	946,096	90	84.13	7,567	2,192	79.78	174,854
1889	151	76.58	11,579	13,663	71.89	982,195	91	84.90	7,712	2,258	79.49	179,444
1890	154	73.58	11,347	14,214	68.84	978,517	96	81.84	7,881	2,331	78.25	182,394
*1890**	*131*	-----	-----	*14,969*	-----	-------	*99*	-----	------	*2,296*	-----	------
1891	147	78.25	11,465	14,057	67.00	941,823	98	88.94	8,735	2,297	77.88	178,847
1892	132	78.62	10,367	15,498	65.01	1,007,594	100	88.13	8,829	2,315	75.55	174,882
1893	133	77.67	10,344	16,207	61.22	992,225	100	86.49	8,630	2,331	70.68	164,764
1894	135	72.20	9,712	16,081	47.83	769,225	110	77.64	8,522	2,352	62.17	146,233
1895	140	55.05	7,702	15,893	36.29	576,731	110	58.79	6,452	2,333	47.55	110,928
1896	144	54.36	7,833	15,124	33.07	500,140	111	59.31	6,575	2,279	45.29	103,204
1897	146	44.76	6,515	14,365	31.51	452,649	111	49.98	5,541	2,216	41.66	92,302
1898	147	47.16	6,932	13,961	34.26	478,362	113	53.64	6,036	2,190	43.88	96,110
1899	147	47.96	7,036	13,665	37.40	511,075	111	55.65	6,199	2,134	44.96	95,963
1900	148	53.50	7,927	13,538	44.61	603,969	113	63.47	7,142	2,086	53.55	111,717
*1900**	*159*	-----	-----	*18,267*	-----	-------	*136*	-----	------	*3,265*	-----	------
1901	167	65.46	10,960	16,745	52.86	885,200	138	77.67	10,723	2,864	63.97	183,232
1902	164	66.99	10,991	16,531	58.61	968,935	137	80.13	10,953	2,757	67.61	186,412
1903	162	71.16	11,558	16,557	62.25	1,030,706	138	85.54	11,809	2,728	72.49	197,753
1904	161	81.06	13,035	16,736	67.93	1,136,940	139	95.65	13,337	2,758	78.88	217,533
1905	164	87.25	14,311	17,058	70.37	1,200,310	142	102.92	14,636	2,889	87.18	251,840
1906	180	98.62	17,794	18,719	80.72	1,510,890	166	116.80	19,435	3,404	98.31	334,681
1907	186	114.00	21,183	19,747	93.51	1,846,578	175	136.00	23,740	3,817	112.16	428,064
1908	190	107.00	20,330	19,992	93.41	1,867,530	177	126.00	22,302	3,869	107.76	416,939
1909	192	110.00	21,120	20,640	95.64	1,974,052	179	127.00	22,733	4,053	107.84	437,082
1910	*166*	-----	-----	21,040	-----	-------	*175*	-----	------	4,123	-----	------
*1910***	*166*	121.00	20,086	*19,833*	108.03	2,142,524	*175*	137.00	23,975	*4,210*	120.20	506,049
1911	168	126.00	21,168	20,277	111.46	2,259,981	178	146.00	25,988	4,323	125.92	544,359
1912	173	126.00	21,798	20,509	105.94	2,172,694	182	144.00	26,208	4,362	120.51	525,657
1913	176	128.00	22,528	20,567	110.77	2,278,222	186	148.00	27,528	4,386	124.31	545,245
1914	180	139.00	25,020	20,962	109.32	2,291,638	192	160.00	30,720	4,449	123.85	551,017
1915	182	130.00	23,660	21,195	103.33	2,190,162	194	151.00	29,294	4,479	112.36	503,271
1916	185	122.00	22,570	21,159	101.60	2,149,786	200	140.00	28,000	4,593	113.83	522,834
1917	185	125.00	23,125	21,210	102.89	2,182,307	205	150.00	30,750	4,723	118.15	558,006
1918	187	140.00	26,180	21,555	104.24	2,246,970	210	167.00	35,070	4,873	128.81	627,679
1919	181	146.00	26,426	21,482	98.45	2,114,897	225	176.00	39,600	4,954	135.83	672,922
1920	*171*	156.00	26,676	19,766	96.51	1,907,646	257	192.00	49,344	5,427	148.42	805,495
*1920****	*171*	-----	-----	*19,767*	-----	-------	*257*	-----	------	*5,432*	-----	------
1921	166	125.00	20,750	19,208	84.31	1,619,423	260	156.00	40,560	5,455	116.69	636,568
1922	166	108.00	17,928	19,056	70.54	1,344,136	257	129.00	33,153	5,467	88.09	481,578
1923	166	108.00	17,928	18,853	69.75	1,314,956	260	128.00	33,280	5,506	85.86	472,735

* Census, June 1. ** Census, April 15. *** Census, January 1.

ter; and it is by no means beyond belief that we may not soon be erecting monuments, as has come about elsewhere, in gratitude to that gobble-un that will surely git us ef we don't watch out (to quote Little Orphant Annie). But this result will be brought about only if we set to work promptly to master the lesson experience is teaching other states. They have not yet learned it thoroughly and we are only now being compelled to buck up against it; and to this fact in some measure are due the strides we have made ahead of some of our southern competitors. But our hour is at hand, and we must look facts in the face.

Our livestock level is pitifully low. Only four states fall below us when the states are ranked according to their status in percent of a lightly stocked farm area. And when it comes to pure-bred livestock, only two states (South Carolina and Louisiana) stand below us in percent of farms reporting one or more pure-bred horses, dairy cows, beef cattle, sheep, or swine. Furthermore, in livestock values per farm in 1920, only Alabama is below us, and that by a single dollar, while South Carolina, next above us, has thirty-three dollars per farm more in livestock values than we. See tables in the *University News Letter,* Vol. VIII, Nos. 29 and 32, and Vol. IX, No. 1.

Moreover, looking in detail at the figures shown in Tables X to XII, it is plain that we have made relatively little progress in livestock in the fifty-seven years considered in this bulletin.

Horses and Mules. Horses and mules (Table X) make the best showing, because they are indispensable work animals. But while our horses were increasing 68 percent (from 99,000 in 1867 to 166,000 in 1923), the horses in the United States at large were increasing 249 percent (from 5,401,000 in 1867 to 18,853,000 in 1923). In mules we more than kept pace with the United States in percent of increase; we have nearly eight times as many mules now as in 1867 (260,000 now, compared with 33,000 at the earlier date), whereas the United States at large has less than seven times as many now as in 1867 (5,506,000 compared with 822,000).

The curves of trend in price for horses and for mules are very similar (charts 38 and 39). In both cases the North Carolina price is higher than the United States price, and in both cases there has been a greater increase in price in North Caro-

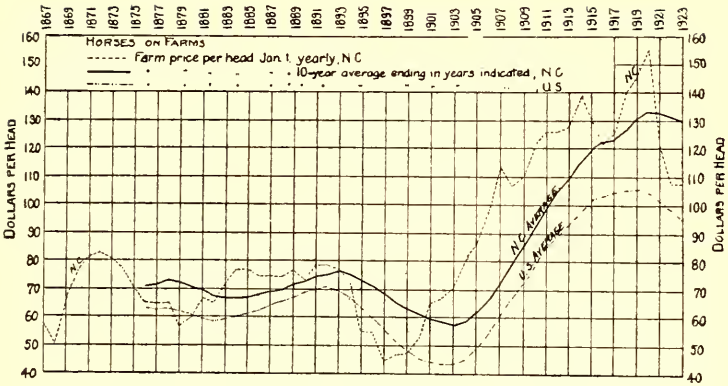


CHART 38.—HORSES: FARM PRICE, N. C. AND U. S.

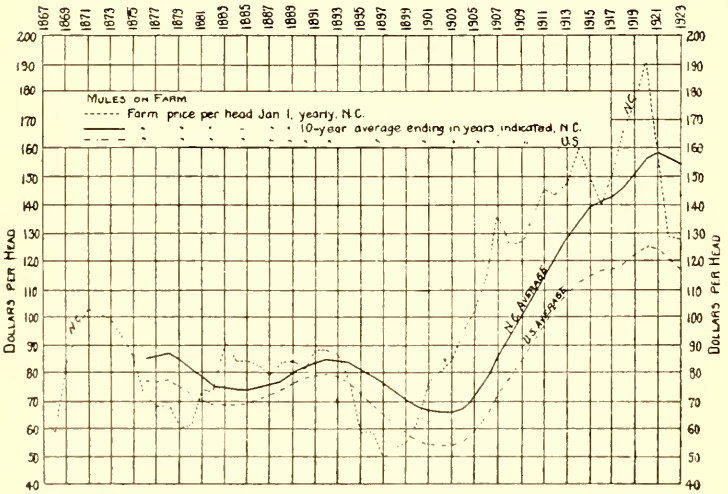


CHART 39.—MULES: FARM PRICE, N. C. AND U. S.

TABLE XI—CATTLE ON FARMS

	MILCH COWS						OTHER CATTLE					
	NORTH CAROLINA			UNITED STATES			NORTH CAROLINA			UNITED STATES		
Jan. 1	Number Thousands	Price per head Jan.1—Dols.	Farm Val. Jan.1—1M Dols.	Number Thousands	Price per head Jan.1—Dols.	Farm Val. Jan.1—1M Dols.	Number Thousands	Price per head Jan.1—Dols.	Farm Val. Jan.1—1M Dols.	Number Thousands	Price per head Jan.1—Dols.	Farm Val. Jan.1—1M Dols.
1867	204	14.90	3,032	8,349	28.74	239,947	293	6.69	1,961	11,731	15.79	185,254
1868	204	13.73	2,795	8,692	26.56	230,817	287	6.74	1,935	11,942	15.06	179,888
1869	206	15.27	3,140	9,248	29.15	269,610	281	8.19	2,305	12,185	18.73	228,183
1870	206	16.94	3,481	10,096	32.70	330,175	296	9.19	2,716	15,388	18.87	290,401
*1870**	*197*	-----	-----	*8,935*	-----	-------	*324*	-----	------	*14,885*	-----	-------
1871	203	20.39	4,147	10,023	33.89	339,701	298	9.65	2,879	16,212	20.78	336,860
1872	205	20.06	4,121	10,304	29.45	303,438	307	9.58	2,943	16,390	18.12	296,932
1873	201	15.15	3,048	10,576	26.72	282,559	316	8.74	2,767	16,414	18.06	296,448
1874	199	14.09	2,806	10,705	25.63	274,326	316	8.53	2,699	16,218	17.55	284,706
1875	197	14.32	2,823	10,907	25.74	280,701	310	7.88	2,443	16,313	16.91	275,872
1876	201	13.59	2,732	11,085	25.61	283,879	313	8.95	2,802	16,785	17.00	285,387
1877	203	14.14	2,871	11,261	25.47	286,778	316	9.85	3,116	17,956	15.99	287,156
1878	230	15.05	3,461	11,300	25.74	290,898	420	9.30	3,906	19,223	16.72	321,346
1879	232	22.20	5,157	11,826	21.71	256,721	416	8.17	3,398	21,408	15.38	329,254
1880	230	12.60	2,898	12,027	23.27	279,899	416	8.31	3,455	21,231	16.10	341,761
*1880**	*232*	-----	-----	*12,443*	-----	-------	*425*	-----	------	*23,482*	-----	-------
1881	230	13.46	3,096	12,369	23.95	296,277	407	8.77	3,574	20,939	17.33	362,862
1882	230	14.03	3,224	12,612	25.89	326,489	430	10.25	4,403	23,280	19.89	463,070
1883	237	17.18	4,067	13,126	30.21	396,575	428	10.68	4,572	28,946	21.81	611,549
1884	234	17.00	3,984	13,501	31.37	423,487	420	10.84	4,547	29,046	23.52	683,229
1885	241	17.00	4,103	13,905	29.70	412,903	428	11.91	5,096	29,867	23.25	691,383
1886	239	16.65	3,979	14,235	27.40	389,986	424	10.24	4,339	31,275	21.17	661,956
1887	241	15.75	3,801	14,522	26.08	378,790	419	9.99	4,188	33,512	19.79	663,138
1888	244	16.00	3,900	14,856	24.65	366,252	419	10.99	4,607	34,378	17.79	611,751
1889	247	16.50	4,082	15,299	23.94	366,226	419	11.41	4,783	35,032	17.05	597,237
1890	272	16.04	4,365	15,953	22.14	353,152	398	10.47	4,170	36,849	15.21	560,625
*1890**	*223*	-----	-----	*16,512*	-----	-------	*407*	-----	------	*33,734*	-----	-------
1891	267	17.50	4,667	16,020	21.62	346,398	390	11.12	4,343	36,876	14.76	544,128
1892	269	17.60	4,741	16,416	21.40	351,378	390	11.59	4,527	37,051	15.16	570,749
1893	272	16.50	4,489	16,424	21.75	357,300	383	11.14	4,262	35,054	15.24	547,882
1894	275	14.99	4,119	16,487	21.77	358,999	386	11.15	4,308	36,608	14.66	536,790
1895	275	14.66	4,028	16,505	21.97	362,002	379	9.58	3,629	34,364	14.06	482,999
1896	272	14.40	3,917	16,138	22.55	363,956	364	10.12	3,680	32,085	15.86	508,928
1897	267	13.75	3,666	15,942	23.16	369,240	345	9.55	3,300	30,508	16.65	507,929
1898	259	14.70	3,802	15,841	27.45	434,814	321	9.92	3,188	29,264	20.92	612,297
1899	248	15.90	3,947	15,990	29.66	474,234	296	10.86	3,211	27,994	22.79	637,931
1900	243	18.20	4,428	16,292	31.60	514,812	275	12.31	3,384	27,610	24.97	689,486
*1900**	*233*	-----	-----	*17,136*	-----	-------	*391*	-----	------	*50,586*	-----	-------
1901	214	18.89	4,045	16,834	30.00	505,093	356	9.79	3,485	45,500	19.93	906,644
1902	206	18.74	3,852	16,697	29.23	488,130	327	9.59	3,141	44,728	18.76	839,126
1903	201	19.81	3,991	17,105	30.21	516,712	308	9.84	3,029	44,659	18.45	824,055
1904	197	22.36	4,415	17,420	29.21	508,841	299	10.74	3,207	43,629	16.32	712,178
1905	193	20.90	4,044	17,572	27.44	482,272	302	10.37	3,127	43,669	15.15	661,571
1906	259	27.10	7,026	19,794	29.44	582,789	437	10.98	4,803	47,068	15.85	746,172
1907	283	24.00	6,782	20,968	31.00	645,497	446	12.00	5,200	51,566	17.10	881,557
1908	294	24.00	7,056	21,194	30.67	650,057	450	12.00	5,400	50,073	16.89	845,938
1909	294	25.00	7,350	21,720	32.36	702,945	454	11.50	5,221	49,379	17.49	863,754
1910	*309*	-----	-----	21,801	-----	-------	*392*	-----	------	47,279	-----	-------
*1910***	*309*	25.50	7,880	*20,625*	35.29	727,802	*392*	12.50	4,900	*41,178*	19.07	785,261
1911	312	28.00	8,736	20,823	39.97	832,209	388	13.40	5,199	39,679	20.54	815,184
1912	312	28.00	8,736	20,699	39.39	815,414	380	12.60	4,788	37,260	21.20	790,064
1913	312	30.10	9,391	20,497	45.02	922,783	372	14.90	5,543	36,030	26.36	949,645
1914	309	35.10	10,846	20,737	53.94	1,118,487	365	17.30	6,314	35,855	31.13	1,116,333
1915	315	36.50	11,498	21,262	55.33	1,176,338	369	17.00	6,273	37,067	33.38	1,237,376
1916	321	34.00	10,914	22,108	53.92	1,191,955	375	16.80	6,300	39,812	33.53	1,334,928
1917	315	39.00	12,285	22,894	59.63	1,365,251	364	19.40	7,062	41,689	35.88	1,497,621
1918	309	51.00	15,759	23,310	70.54	1,644,231	375	24.80	9,300	44,112	40.88	1,803,482
1919	315	69.00	21,735	23,475	78.20	1,835,770	379	31.90	12,090	45,085	44.22	1,993,442
1920	*354*	78.00	27,612	*23,722*	85.86	2,036,750	*391*	32.00	9,312	*43,398*	43.21	1,875,043
*1920****	*354*	-----	-----	*23,722*	-----	-------	*391*	-----	------	*43,398*	-----	-------
1921	361	58.00	20,938	23,594	64.22	1,515,249	285	24.20	6,897	41,993	31.36	1,316,727
1922	365	42.00	15,330	24,082	50.98	1,227,703	274	17.30	4,740	41,550	23.80	988,760
1923	365	39.00	14,235	24,429	50.83	1,241,673	274	17.10	4,685	41,923	25.67	1,076,254

* Census, June 1. ** Census, April 15. *** Census, January 1.

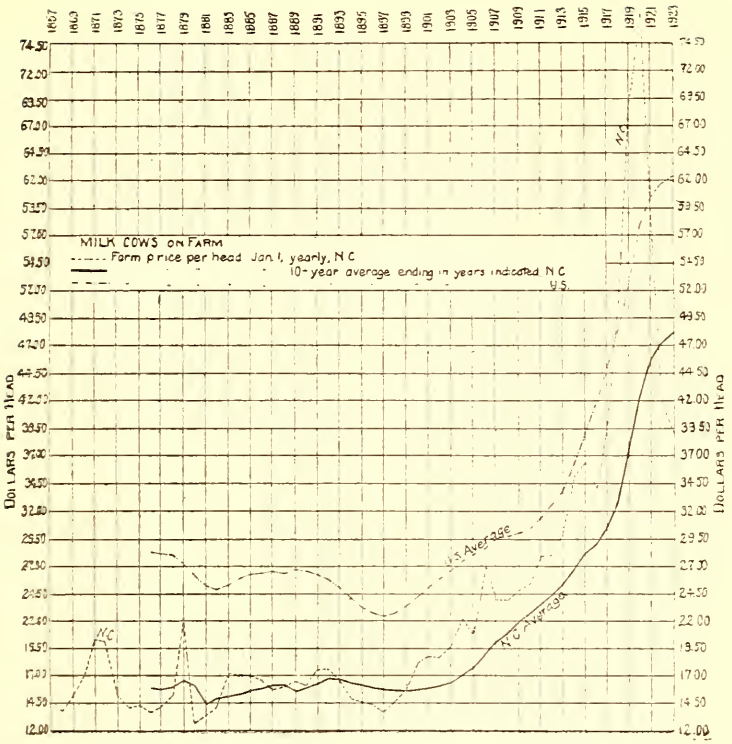


CHART 40.—MILCH COWS: FARM PRICE, N. C. AND U. S.

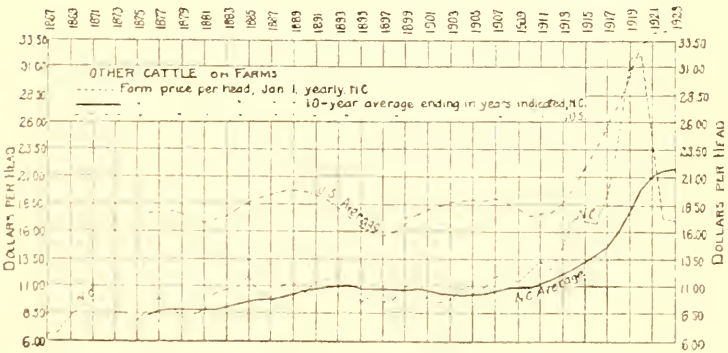


CHART 41.—OTHER CATTLE: FARM PRICE, N. C. AND U. S.

lina than in the United States, which has widened the gap between our price and the price for the United States as a whole. Both curves are declining since the high prices of the war period, and they are at present below their pre-war level. Automobiles and farm motors are no doubt exercising a greater influence on prices for these animals in the country at large than in North Carolina; hence our higher percentage of gain in farm price.

Cattle. Our increase in number of dairy cattle in 1923 over 1867 (Table XI) was only 79 percent (365,000 compared with 204,000), while the similar increase in the United States at large was 193 percent (24,429,000 compared with 8,349,000). Our other cattle actually dwindled in number—they are six percent fewer in 1923 than they were in 1867 (274,000 compared with 293,000); whereas in the United States at large the cattle other than dairy cattle are over three and a half times as many in 1923 as in 1867 (41,923,000 compared with 11,731,000). These figures are significant and should give us pause.

Furthermore, our farm prices for both milk cows and other cattle (charts 40 and 41) are much below the United States averages; and, though we have in each case made a greater percentage gain in price per head than the United States as a whole has made, our ten-year average price (Jan. 1) 1914-23 was only 77 percent of the United States ten-year average price for milk cows, and for other cattle only 63 percent of the United States average for the same ten years.

Sheep. As for sheep (Table XII), we seem to be abandoning them altogether. They are a dwindling quantity in both North Carolina and the United States, but our decrease, comparing 1923 with 1867, was 76 percent (81,000 compared with 339,000), whereas the decrease in the United States as a whole was only six percent (37,209,000 compared with 39,385,000).

Notwithstanding the fact that we have made a greater percentage gain in farm price for sheep than the country at large, our ten-year average price (Jan. 1) 1914-23 was still only 76 percent of the United States average farm price for sheep for the same ten years. Evidently the sheep industry is not thriving with us.

Swine. Conditions as regards swine are somewhat better. Our 1923 number (Table XII) shows an increase of nine percent

TABLE XII—SHEEP AND SWINE ON FARMS

	SHEEP						SWINE					
	NORTH CAROLINA			UNITED STATES			NORTH CAROLINA			UNITED STATES		
Jan. 1	Number Thousands	Price per head Jan. 1—Dolls.	Farm Val. Jan. 1—1M Dolls.	Number Thousands	Price per head Jan. 1—Dolls.	Farm Val. Jan. 1—1M Dolls.	Number Thousands	Price per head Jan. 1—Dolls.	Farm Val. Jan. 1—1M Dolls.	Number Thousands	Price per head Jan. 1—Dolls.	Farm Val. Jan. 1—1M Dolls.
1867	339	1.32	447	39,385	2.50	98,644	1,161	3.27	3,797	24,694	4.03	99,637
1868	326	1.20	390	38,992	1.82	71,053	975	2.49	2,432	24,317	3.29	79,976
1869	296	1.26	374	37,724	1.64	62,037	858	3.19	2,740	23,316	4.65	108,431
1870	325	1.37	445	40,853	1.96	79,876	850	3.94	3,350	26,751	5.80	155,108
*1870**	*463*	-----	-----	*28,478*	-----	-------	*1,075*	-----	-------	*25,135*	-----	-------
1871	315	1.47	464	31,851	2.14	68,310	842	3.75	3,155	29,458	5.61	165,312
1872	296	1.44	426	31,679	2.61	82,768	875	2.75	2,406	31,796	4.01	127,453
1873	293	1.43	421	33,002	2.71	89,427	849	2.75	2,330	32,632	3.67	119,632
1874	279	1.41	392	33,938	2.43	82,353	823	2.60	2,141	30,861	3.98	122,695
1875	276	1.41	390	33,784	2.55	86,278	807	2.96	2,391	28,062	4.80	134,581
1876	284	1.39	394	35,935	2.37	85,121	758	3.52	2,670	25,727	6.00	154,251
1877	281	1.43	401	35,804	2.13	76,302	736	3.89	2,863	28,077	5.66	158,873
1878	490	1.50	734	35,740	2.21	78,888	1,180	3.65	4,304	32,262	4.85	156,577
1879	425	1.28	543	38,124	2.07	78,965	1,263	2.96	3,734	34,766	3.18	110,508
1880	425	1.45	616	40,766	2.21	90,231	1,263	3.15	3,977	34,034	4.28	145,782
*1880**	*462*	-----	-----	*42,192*	-----	-------	*1,454*	-----	-------	*49,773*	-----	-------
1881	386	1.35	521	43,570	2.39	104,071	1,237	3.20	3,959	36,248	4.70	170,535
1882	471	1.30	612	45,016	2.37	106,586	1,381	4.12	5,688	44,122	5.97	263,543
1883	466	1.39	648	49,237	2.53	124,366	1,312	4.15	5,444	43,270	6.75	291,951
1884	452	1.38	624	50,627	2.37	119,903	1,364	3.91	5,334	44,201	5.57	246,301
1885	488	1.37	669	50,360	2.14	107,901	1,433	4.04	5,787	45,143	5.02	226,402
1886	469	1.28	600	48,322	1.91	92,444	1,347	3.24	4,357	46,092	4.26	196,570
1887	450	1.28	576	44,759	2.01	89,873	1,279	3.35	4,287	44,613	4.48	200,043
1888	428	1.36	581	43,545	2.05	89,280	1,266	3.53	4,464	44,347	4.98	220,811
1889	419	1.37	576	42,599	2.13	90,640	1,279	3.76	4,810	50,302	5.79	291,307
1890	415	1.51	625	44,336	2.27	100,600	1,292	3.38	4,368	51,603	4.72	243,418
*1890****	*402*	-----	-----	*40,876*	-----	-------	*1,251*	-----	-------	*57,427*	-----	-------
1891	398	1.70	679	43,431	2.50	108,397	1,292	3.36	4,343	50,625	4.15	210,194
1892	390	1.82	710	44,938	2.58	116,121	1,253	3.70	4,640	52,398	4.60	241,031
1893	396	1.62	642	47,274	2.66	125,909	1,259	4.05	5,094	46,095	6.41	295,426
1894	376	1.49	559	45,048	1.98	89,186	1,335	3.99	5,329	45,206	5.98	270,385
1895	357	1.34	480	42,294	1.58	66,686	1,442	3.96	5,712	44,166	4.97	219,501
1896	343	1.39	478	38,299	1.70	65,168	1,427	3.92	5,592	42,843	4.35	186,530
1897	319	1.39	444	36,819	1.82	67,021	1,456	3.11	4,524	40,600	4.10	166,273
1898	300	1.47	426	37,657	2.46	92,721	1,427	3.03	4,319	39,760	4.39	174,351
1899	261	1.52	396	39,114	2.75	107,698	1,370	3.29	4,504	38,652	4.40	170,110
1900	235	1.62	380	41,883	2.93	122,606	1,329	3.56	4,725	37,079	5.00	185,472
*1900**	*†302*	-----	-----	*61,504*	-----	-------	*1,300*	-----	-------	*62,876*	-----	-------
1901	279	1.73	482	59,757	2.98	178,072	1,302	3.66	4,770	56,982	6.20	353,012
1902	245	1.69	415	62,039	2.65	164,446	1,094	3.95	4,317	48,699	7.03	342,121
1903	221	1.79	396	63,965	2.63	168,316	1,017	5.39	5,482	46,923	7.78	364,974
1904	203	1.98	401	51,630	2.59	133,550	1,048	4.84	5,071	47,009	6.15	289,225
1905	209	1.99	416	45,170	2.82	127,332	1,058	4.85	5,132	47,321	5.99	283,255
1906	220	2.69	591	50,632	3.54	179,056	1,153	4.80	5,536	52,103	6.18	321,803
1907	224	2.44	546	53,240	3.84	204,210	1,292	5.30	6,846	54,794	7.62	417,791
1908	220	2.62	576	54,631	3.88	211,736	1,357	5.60	7,599	56,084	6.05	339,030
1909	222	2.40	533	56,084	3.43	192,632	1,398	6.30	8,807	54,147	6.55	354,794
1910	*214*	-----	-----	57,216	-----	-------	*1,328*	-----	-------	47,782	-----	-------
*1910***	*214*	2.60	556	*52,448*	4.12	216,030	*1,228*	7.20	8,842	*58,186*	9.17	533,399
1911	203	2.98	605	53,633	3.91	209,555	1,351	7.60	10,268	65,620	9.37	615,170
1912	193	2.80	540	52,362	3.46	181,170	1,405	7.40	10,397	65,410	8.00	523,328
1913	181	3.10	561	51,482	3.94	202,779	1,325	7.70	10,280	61,178	9.86	603,109
1914	177	3.29	566	49,719	4.02	200,045	1,362	9.00	12,258	58,933	10.40	612,951
1915	177	3.30	584	49,956	4.50	224,687	1,525	8.20	12,505	64,618	9.87	637,479
1916	155	3.20	496	48,625	5.17	251,504	1,550	7.80	12,090	67,766	8.40	569,573
1917	140	3.90	546	47,616	7.13	339,529	1,450	9.70	14,065	67,503	11.75	792,898
1918	137	6.60	904	48,603	11.82	574,575	1,400	17.10	23,940	70,978	19.54	1,387,201
1919	138	8.70	1,201	48,896	11.63	568,265	1,546	21.00	32,466	74,584	22.02	1,642,598
1920	*91*	-----	-----	39,025	10.47	408,586	*1,271*	-----	-------	59,344	19.07	1,131,674
*1920****	*91*	9.60	874	*35,034*	-----	-------	*1,271*	20.00	25,420	*59,346*	-----	-------
1921	89	6.60	587	37,452	6.30	235,855	1,246	15.70	19,562	56,097	12.97	727,380
1922	84	4.90	412	36,327	4.80	174,545	1,258	12.00	15,096	57,834	10.07	582,448
1923	81	5.60	454	37,209	7.50	278,939	1,271	13.30	16,904	63,424	11.46	726,699

* Census, June 1. ** Census, April 15. *** Census, January 1.

† Includes spring lambs (N. C. 93,000, U. S. 21,668,000). In previous censuses instructions did not mention them, and it is doubtful to what extent they were reported as sheep.

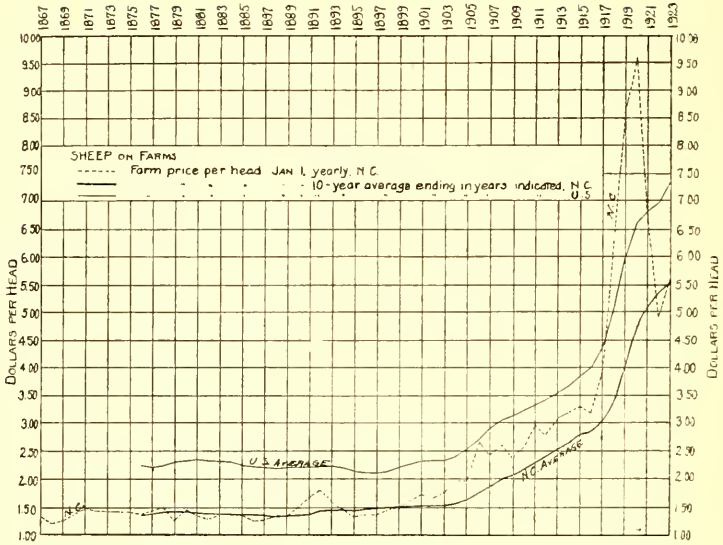


CHART 42.—SHEEP: FARM PRICE, N. C. AND U. S.

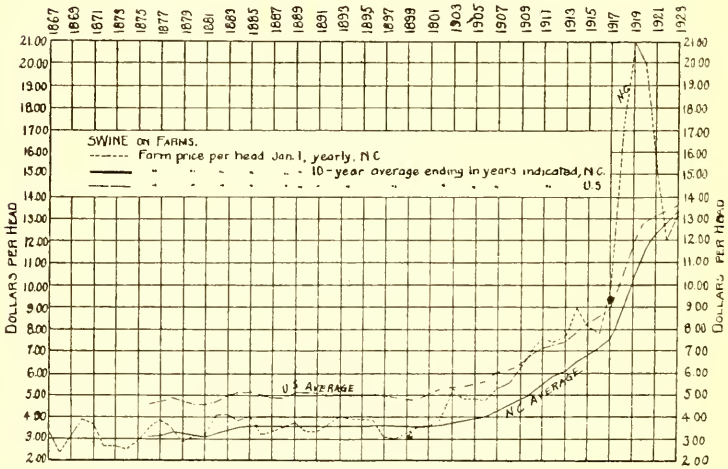


CHART 43.—SWINE: FARM PRICE, N. C. AND U. S.

over the 1867 figures (1,271,000 compared with 1,161,000), while in the United States as a whole there has been an increase of 157 percent (63,424,000 compared with 24, 694,000).

Our farm price per head of swine (chart 43) has been uniformly below the United States figure, but our gain in price, comparing the decades 1913-22 and 1866-75, was 329 percent, while in the United States as a whole the gain in price was only 196 percent. This brings the North Carolina price very near to the United States level— i. e., the North Carolina ten-year average farm price for swine (Jan. 1) 1914-23 was 98.7 percent of the United States average for the same ten years ($13.38 compared with $13.56). This, at any rate, is encouraging.

III. FOOD PRODUCTION

1. *Food production as compared with population.* The relation of food production to population in North Carolina and in the United States cannot be adequately discussed without closer study than has yet been given this subject. However, comparing production and population in the several census years included in the fifty-seven years here considered, it may be said

TABLE XIII—FOOD CROPS AND POPULATION IN N. C. CENSUS YEARS 1870-1920

Year	Population	CORN		WHEAT	
		Production in Preceding Year Bus.	Per Inhabitant Bus.	Production in Preceding Year Bus.	Per Inhabitant Bus.
1870	1,071,361	18,454,000	17.2	2,860,000	2.7
1880	1,399,750	28,020,000	20.0	3,397,000	2.4
1890	1,617,949	25,784,000	15.9	4,292,000	2.7
1900	1,893,810	34,819,000	18.4	4,342,000	2.3
1910	2,206,287	34,064,000	15.4	3,827,000	1.7
1920	2,559,123	40,998,000	16.0	4,745,000	1.9

Year	Population	OATS		POTOTOES (All)	
		Production in Preceding Year Bus.	Per Inhabitant Bus.	Production in Preceding Year Bus.	Per Inhabitant Bus.
1870	1,071,361	3,220,000	3.0	3,811,000	3.6
1880	1,399,750	3,838,000	2.7	5,299,000	3.8
1890	1,617,949	4,513,000	2.7	6,864,000	4.2
1900	1,893,810	2,455,000	1.3	7,418,000	3.9
1910	2,206,287	2,783,000	1.3	10,865,000	4.9
1920	2,559,123	1,671,000	.7	12,163,000	4.8

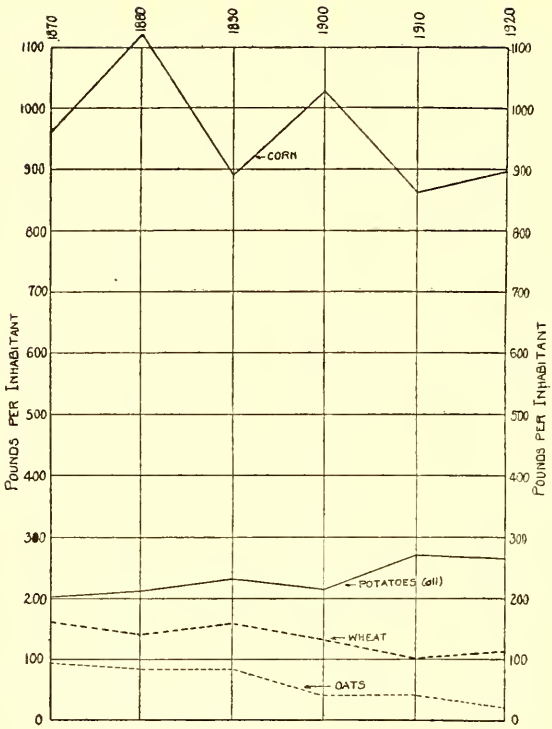


CHART 44.—PRODUCTION PER INHABITANT OF IMPORTANT FOOD CROPS IN NORTH CAROLINA FOR CENSUS YEARS 1870-1920.

that North Carolina seems to be losing ground in per capita production of corn, wheat, and oats, while gaining in per capita production of potatoes and sweet potatoes. In the United States as a whole, on the contrary, there would seem to be an increasing per capita production of wheat and oats, while the production of corn per capita in census years has varied so much as to obscure the trend; and no plainly marked trend is observable in per capita production of potatoes and sweet potatoes. The United States, of course, is a surplus-producing wheat country, but in North Carolina it may be noted that per capita production of wheat is far below the average per capita consumption of wheat in this state—even though (because of our use of cornmeal) our estimated requirements of wheat per person is small as compared with the requirements in many other states.

TABLE XIV—FOOD ANIMALS AND POPULATION IN N. C.
CENSUS YEARS 1870-1920

Year	Population	MILCH COWS		OTHER CATTLE		SWINE	
		Total Number	Per Inhabitant	Total Number	Per Inhabitant	Total Number	Per Inhabitant
1870	1,071,361	197,000	0.18	324,000	0.30	1,075,000	1.00
1880	1,399,750	232,000	.17	425,000	.30	1,454,000	1.04
1890	1,617,949	223,000	.14	407,000	.25	1,251,000	.77
1900	1,893,810	233,000	.12	391,000	.21	1,300,000	.69
1910	2,206,287	309,000	.14	392,000	.18	1,228,000	.56
1920	2,559,123	354,000	.14	291,000	.11	1,271,000	.56

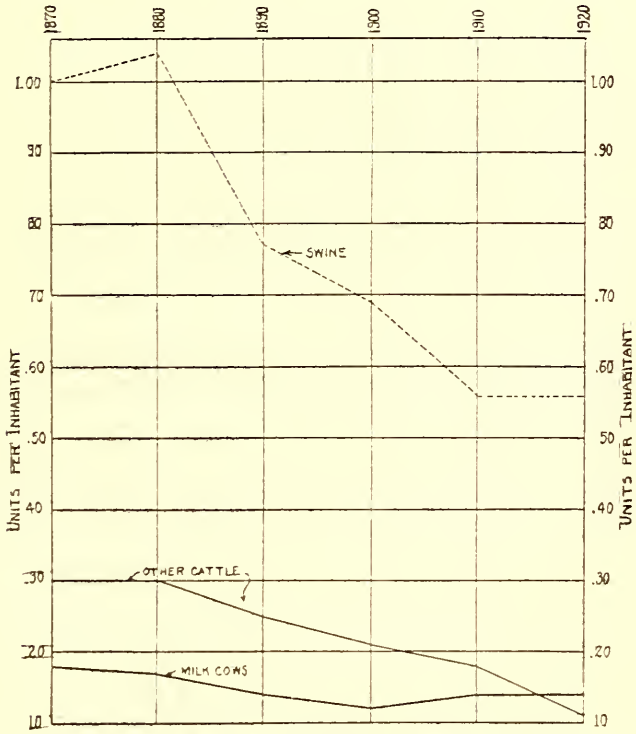


CHART 45.—NUMBER PER INHABITANT OF IMPORTANT FOOD ANIMALS IN NORTH CAROLINA FOR CENSUS YEARS 1870-1920.

Similar and even more marked diminution is found in food animals as compared with population in North Carolina. These facts are exhibited in Tables XIII and XIV and in charts 44 and 45.

Careful investigation of this whole subject would be of interest in connection with the effort to establish ourselves more securely on a self-feeding basis.

2. *General considerations.* In considering our standing in livestock, we would do well to take a look at some of the states whose livestock levels are high. (See *University News Letter,* Vol. VIII, No. 29.) Iowa stands first in this respect, and Iowa also stands first in farm wealth produced per farm worker and per country dweller and in the surplus of food and feed supplies produced (*University News Letter,* Vol. VIII, Nos. 25, 38, and 47). Other states having high livestock levels stand similarly much higher than North Carolina in all these respects. These are all matters in which we rank comparatively low, and in which we can beyond question improve our status by paying to our farm livestock situation the attention it urgently demands. We need to give this matter such serious thought as will lead us to cease to concentrate entirely upon cash crops. These, though they bring high per-acre crop values, leave us with farm wealth amounting in the latest census year to some $684 per country dweller, as compared with $8,113 in Iowa and $1,836 in the United States at large.

Improvement in our tenancy situation will bring improvement in our livestock situation, and vice versa. This is a fact brought out plainly in the findings of the North Carolina Club at the University in its recent exploration of the whole subject of tenancy. These findings will repay study; they have been published in the Club Year-Book for 1921-22, on Farm and Home Ownership.

It cannot be denied that there has been vast prosperity for the few under our prevailing farm system. But what of the many? Have *they* prospered in due proportion?

Coöperative marketing is calculated to play a big part in preserving for the many some abiding financial fruits of their labor. But coöperative marketing of cash crops alone cannot establish a high standard of living in our country regions. Food and feed crops, home-raised bread and meat, are essentials if we are

to retain any considerable proportion of the wealth we produce. And these are generally characteristic of a home-owning civilization, towards which we must direct our efforts. The recent appointment of a commission to study the matter of state-aid to assist farmers in owning their own homes is a step in the right direction. Such study must not be allowed to languish. It must be pushed forward until logical conclusions are reached, and then acted upon with the promptitude and firmness that have characterized much of our state legislation in recent years.

But the main portion of our necessary readjustments must come from the farmers themselves. Their prosperity in the main is in their own hands if they will read aright the lessons taught by experience in this state and the South generally. The state institutions of learning are eager to help them with these lessons, which are not easy to digest without the aid of trained minds. But surely we may end on a note of optimism, since, beyond question, the opportunity for training is more and more available and is more and more welcomed and embraced by our rising generation.

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UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA EXTENSION BULLETIN

THE HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARY

By LOUIS R. WILSON *and* OTHERS

CHAPEL HILL, N. C.
THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA PRESS
1923

INTRODUCTION

"A school without windows wherein children grope hopelessly in the dark would be no worse than a school that lacks a library."

This statement, taken from an advertisement recently issued by a highly successful library furnishing house, probably is an exaggeration. It was, doubtless, intended to be. But it nevertheless contains a truth which educators today are recognizing as never before. The properly equipped, properly administered library in the school has become recognized as the heart of the school, and in modern educational practice it is receiving the most careful sort of consideration.

The following articles on the high school library have been prepared with the hope that the library in the high schools of North Carolina may be so planned, equipped, and administered that it may play the fine part it should in the educational life of the State. The articles grow out of the experience of those who are intimately acquainted with library standards and practice, and they are brought together in this bulletin in order that they may be of the greatest possible service.

LOUIS R. WILSON.

THE HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARY

By J. HENRY HIGHSMITH
State Inspector of High Schools for North Carolina

A library is an essential part of the equipment of every high school. It is just as necessary to have a library as it is to have a laboratory for the sciences. Indeed a library should be a workshop and should serve for such subjects as English and history the same large purpose that a laboratory serves in teaching general science and biology.

Realizing that adequate provision had not been made for libraries in the high schools of the State, particularly in the rural high schools, about two years ago a requirement was made that at least every standard school should have a library. The minimum requirement, which applied to what are known as Group II schools, was three hundred books. The requirement for a Group I school was five hundred books. This requirement still holds.

In order that principals and teachers might know what books to select, a bulletin, giving a list of books for high school libraries was published, and a copy sent to every high school principal in the State. As a result of the requirement of three hundred books for a Group II school and five hundred books for a Group I school, thousands of books have been placed in public high school libraries within the last year, and the library has become an increasingly efficient agency in the work of every high school. When it is remembered that there are two hundred and seven white standard high schools, it will be seen that there are between 60,000 and 75,000 books in these schools not to mention schools that have a lesser number. To be

sure, some of these books are worthless, but many of them are the best that could be secured.

As set forth in the bulletin (Educational Publication No. 33), library books should be carefully selected, keeping in mind the particular needs as well as the general needs of any given school. It is suggested that the books be distributed about as follows:

1. All of the reference books—sixteen in number—and the periodicals—twelve in number—except the encyclopedia, which should be purchased as soon as possible.
2. Fifty volumes of standard fiction.
3. Fifty volumes of standard literature in the form of essays, orations, addresses, short stories, and dramas.
4. At least ten of the books suggested on agriculture and home economics.
5. Twenty-five books on geography and travel.
6. Seventy-five volumes of history and biography.
7. Good editions of at least twenty-five of the leading American and British poets.

In order to serve its highest purpose every high school library should be a growing library. It is necessary to add fresh material from time to time in order that the interest of the students may be sustained and their needs met. It is impossible to say just how many books should be added to a library each year, but it is safe to say that from $50.00 to $75.00 a year should be spent in the purchase of new books and periodicals.

The question which will naturally occur to high school principals and teachers is where to get the money to purchase the library in the first place and where to get the $50.00 to $75.00 for yearly additions. Unfortunately the State has no high school library

fund. In some instances, however, where high schools have received special aid in order that they might become standard schools, permission has been given to use part of the fund in the purchase of library books since the library is a part of the equipment of every standard school. Provision for the library should be made by the local committee in making up its budget every year. Funds for the libraries in the schools in any given county should be included in his budget by the county superintendent and should be provided for precisely as any other item of expense in connection with the school. The amount should be at least fifty cents (50c) per high school pupil per year. If only two schools were given $50.00 each per year in every county it would mean that in the one hundred counties $10,000 a year would be spent for library books. This would be a splendid investment and would yield a handsome dividend. At the rate of fifty cents per high school pupil, it would mean that $20,000 to $25,000 would be available each year for the purchase of library books.

In some instances the Parent-Teachers' Association has agreed to raise the money for the high school library. In other instances the Woman's club of the community has supplied the funds. Sometimes a book shower has been given. Of course in a book shower some worthless and undesirable books are given and the principal and teachers have to pass judgment upon all books donated, allowing only the usable and suitable ones to be placed in the library. In many instances in rural communities principals and teachers have resorted to box suppers and other social affairs for the raising of funds. This ought not to be necessary, for, as already stated, the high school li-

brary is so very important that it should be provided for just as other equipment in the school is provided for.

It will be necessary, of course, to provide a suitable room for the housing of the library. It is not satisfactory to put the books in the principal's office, unless the office is large and well adapted as a library room. It is not satisfactory to use a little room at the side of the stage or some other out of the way place. The library should be installed in one of the best, most commodious, most accessible, best lighted, best ventilated, rooms in the whole school building. When plans for a new building are considered special attention should be called to provision for a library room.

In order for the library to function in the life of the school it is necessary to have a librarian. Some teacher, perhaps the teacher of English, should give at least a part of her time to this library work. Of course it is highly desirable to have a trained librarian, but if such a person cannot be secured, then by all means some teacher in the school should go to some institution where library methods are taught and equip herself for the work of a librarian. In order that she may have time to devote to this library work she should be relieved of certain duties as teacher, thereby making available a part of her time for supervision of the library and giving much needed direction to the pupils in their use of library books. Keeping a record of the books is important, but it is also important that pupils be trained how to use library books and what to read and study. It should be kept in mind in purchasing books, and in the handling of them once they have been placed in the library, that books are to be used. They should not be bought for ornamental pur-

I. LIBRARY LAYOUT SHOWING SHELVES, SEATING, AND INDIRECT LIGHTING

poses, and students in high schools should be not only encouraged but required to go to the library for information, understanding that the next best thing to knowing a thing is knowing where to find it.

The State Department of Public Instruction will revise the high school bulletin from time to time, and will seek in every way possible to serve the high schools in establishing and maintaining libraries in every high school in the State.

THE DESIGN AND EQUIPMENT OF THE SCHOOL LIBRARY ROOM

By JOHN J. BLAIR

Director of Schoolhouse Planning, N. C. State Department of Education

Heretofore in the planning of buildings ample provision for a library has not received the attention which its importance deserves. With the centralization of a group of schools into one of the consolidated type, the library feature should receive the greatest possible thought and consideration. It might be helpful, therefore, to present some items of importance which may profitably be taken into account.

In the planning of a building it should be kept in mind that the library constitutes a necessary and essential part of the school, also that it will be needed by every pupil enrolled, and if properly organized, will be used more constantly even than the auditorium or gymnasium. The library is the working laboratory for the departments of English, history, language and literature. Probably no special feature of a school building can be as profitably used by so large a percentage of both teachers and pupils as the library. It

is here that children of all ages are taught to use intelligently books of reference relating to their respective departments of school work. It is an old saying that the next best thing to knowing a thing is to know where to find out something about it. With expert direction and practice at school, therefore, the child will utilize his home library to better advantage and this should be an important agency in pointing the way to self-education.

Location

Many architects' plans show to the left of the main entrance to the building a principal's office, and to the right of this a corresponding room of the same size designated as the library. It has been found that the most satisfactory location for a library is upon the second floor in a central position accessible to teachers and students and convenient to the study hall. Plenty of sunshine and light being desirable, a southern exposure should be selected. When the school gives public library service to the town or community, the only possible location is the first floor.

Dimensions and Equipment

The idea no longer obtains that a library is a stackroom for the storage of books. A room the size of a standard classroom thirty by twenty-one feet is desirable. The window area should equal at least one-fifth the square foot area of the floor. In a combination grammar and high school the library will be used constantly by groups or classes, who will be given instruction in the use of books and libraries, as well as by those who will come there from time to time for individual reading and reference work.

II. LIBRARY ROOM WITH SHELVING AND SEATS AND CHAIRS FOR THIRTY SIX PUPILS

Furniture, Lighting, and Shelving

The following provides a reasonable and economical equipment:

1. Tables 3x5 ft. with six chairs to each table for the purpose of taking notes and reading and reference work, which may be assigned by teachers in their respective departments.

2. Built-in cases for books extending around either one, two or three sides of the room, as needed.

3. A U-shaped librarian's desk of standard make with chair and other needed equipment.

4. A magazine rack and case for dictionary with slanting top.

5. For artificial lighting there should be installed an indirect or semi-indirect form of lighting fixture.

6. Cards and card-index cases or trays of sufficient number and size to meet the needs of the library.

7. The floor should be of cork composition or battleship linoleum, or if a wooden floor is necessary, the chairs should be rubber-tipped, so that absolute quiet can prevail.

The Director of Schoolhouse Planning accompanies this article with cuts of three types of libraries, which will give to the builder a better idea of the equipment, arrangement of furniture and lighting than could possibly be done with several pages of written description.

Interior No. I shows a standard sized classroom adapted to library use. The cases and shelves for books were designed by the architect and built in by the contractor as a part of the regular construction. The library case should be six or seven feet high with five or six shelf spaces. The upper shelves, if they are fixed, should be ten and one-half inches in height and

the lower one from eleven to fourteen to accommodate folio bindings and encyclopedias. If movable shelves are desired, they can be supported by steel pins, fixed in holes an inch apart in the vertical partition. For the length of shelf a three-foot section seems to give the best service. If longer than this, the shelves will bend under the weight of books and thus present an unsightly appearance. It is very desirable that the backs of the cases be covered with dressed tongued and grooved ceiling, which if nailed to the shelves, will keep them in perfect alignment. Another advantage of the three-foot section is that when desirable and finances will permit a glass door can easily be installed. Interior No. I shows the equipment above described complete. Eight tables 3x5 feet. with four dozen chairs of a substantial make furnish accommodations for a class of forty-eight pupils. An allowance for this equipment, not including the bookcases and shelves, of about $300.00 ought to be made.

Interior No. II shows a room about 24 feet square with the cases built across one end with space for six tables and seats for a class of thirty-six pupils.

Interior No. III shows a more elaborate equipment with the librarian's desk and card catalog placed in the center of the room.

Interior No. IV shows the floor plan and a good working arrangement of cases, tables, radiators and other equipment as outlined above.

The Librarian's Work Room

If possible, there should be partitioned off at one end a section for the librarian's work and file room, where books may be catalogued and prepared for the shelves and damaged books repaired. Shelving should

Courtesy of Teachers College *Record*, January, 1923.

III. LIBRARY OF THE LINCOLN SCHOOL, TEACHERS COLLEGE

be provided here also and in addition at the bottom, closets with a space equivalent to two shelves utilized for built-in cupboards 14 inches deep with solid panel doors. This gives closet space for storing back numbers of magazines, books to be re-bound and stock of supplies. A wash bowl with running water is a very necessary adjunct.

While this article applies to the physical equipment and aspect of the library problem with a view primarily to standardize the library work in the State, the suggestion should be made as to the need for the special training of teacher-librarians. The training for this work must be special and standardized. The records used in public libraries are usually more elaborate than are necessary in school libraries where the system used must be very simple but still accurate and adapted to the needs of the school. The modern school library, to accomplish all the desired ends, should be as carefuly planned for and equipped as any department in the school and with a view to serving all departments. It is a place for work, not a study hall, or a storage room for books, nor a lounging place, but distinctly a place of order, refinement, attractiveness and service.

STANDARDS FOR HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARIES

By LOUIS R. WILSON
Librarian of the University of North Carolina

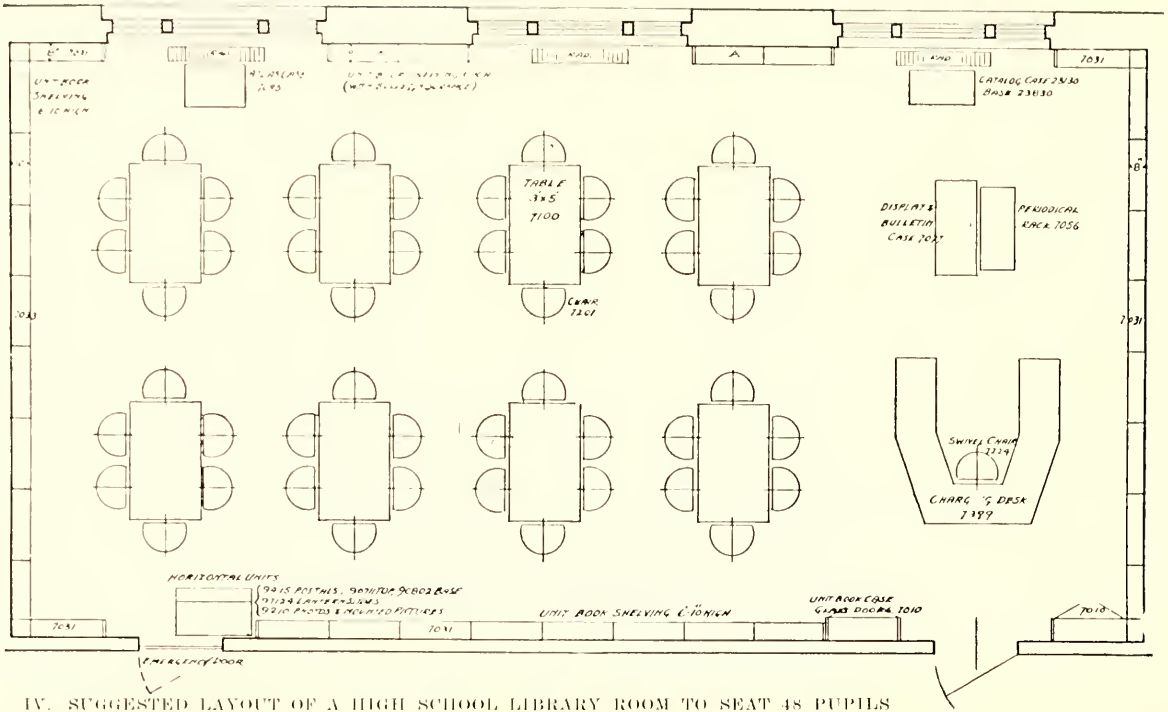
The importance of making the high school library the heart of the work of the high school has within the past five years received two highly significant evidences of consideration. In the South generally, through the Southern Association of Colleges and

Secondary Schools, the possession of specific library resources has been required of schools in order that they may enjoy the accredited relation. Throughout the North and West, in which a similar requirement had been made earlier, definite standards applicable to library organization and equipment for secondary schools have also been adopted.

In North Carolina, the State Department of Education has recently passed a regulation in accord with that of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, requiring minimum collections of 300 volumes for group B and 500 volumes for group A schools, and has printed a list of books from which it is suggested that the books be selected. The matter of high school library standards is now under consideration, and the following suggestions, based very largely on the Report of the Committee on Library Organization and Equipment of the National Education Association (American Library Association, 78 East Washington St., Chicago, 1920, 40c), are offered for the guidance of schools now attempting to build up efficient high school libraries.

Requisites of a Standard Library Organization

According to the report mentioned above, the requisites of a standard library organization are: (I) appropriate housing and equipment of the high school library; (II) professionally trained librarians; (III) scientific selection and care of books and other material, and the proper classification and cataloging of this material: (IV) instruction in the use of books and libraries as a unit course in high school curricula; (V) adequate annual appropriations for salaries and for the maintenance of the library, for the purchase



IV. SUGGESTED LAYOUT OF A HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARY ROOM TO SEAT 48 PUPILS

Courtesy of the Library Bureau.

of books and other printed matter, for the rebinding of books, for supplies, and for general upkeep; (VI) a trained librarian as state supervisor to be appointed as a member of the state education department, as in Minnesota, or under the library commission in co-operation with the state education department, as in New Jersey.

I. HOUSING AND EQUIPMENT

The library should be scientifically planned as an integral part of the high school building. The reading room (which should be used solely for library purposes) should be centrally located, preferably on the second floor and near the study hall, unless it is used by the community in the capacity of a public library. In that case it should be on the first floor near the entrance. In the small school it should have a minimum seating capacity of an average classroom. In larger schools provision should be made for from 6 to 10 per cent of the entire enrollment, an area of 25 square feet of floor space per reader being required for complete accommodations and service. It should have an exposure admitting plenty of light and sunshine, should be well ventilated, and should be equipped with electric ceiling fixtures of either the indirect or semi-indirect type. White ceilings, light buff walls, light colored woodwork and trim, and a sound-deadening floor covering of cork carpet or linoleum are highly desirable.

The shelving, set flat against the wall or built into it, should be open and adjustable at intervals of one inch. It should be 7 feet high, 8 inches deep, and divided into three foot sections. For very large books the bottom shelves of one or two sections should be

made 10 or 12 inches in depth, and one section of 8-inch shelving should be set aside for magazines which can be laid flat on their sides. In estimating the book capacity of shelving, allow 8 books for each linear foot. Floor stacks will rarely be required, as the wall space is usually ample. Tables 3 by 5 feet and seating 6 pupils, a card catalogue case, a library charging desk, a dictionary and atlas stand, a periodical rack, a book truck, a vertical file case, pamphlet boxes, and chairs (tipped with rubber if the floor is not covered) complete a minimum equipment.

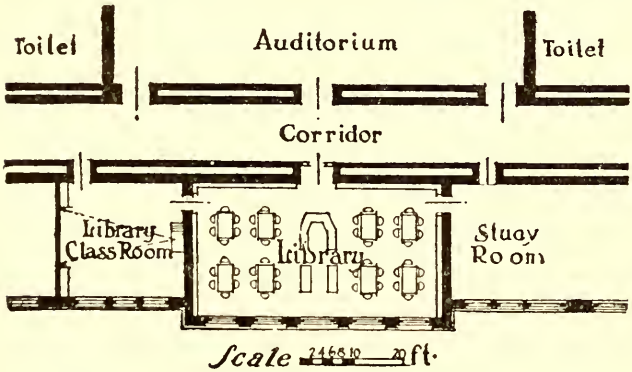
In schools that can afford it, the reading room should be connected with a librarian's work room and a library classroom. The work room should be at least 10 by 15 feet and equipped with a cataloging desk, a typewriter with card-cataloging attachment, a typewriter table, chairs, shelves, storage space for supplies, and running water. The classroom should be furnished with chairs with tablet arms, a small stage, lantern and moving picture outfits, reflectoscope, victrola, table, and bulletin board of corticine. Both rooms should be well lighted and ventilated. If the classroom is used by all departments, it should have other access than through the library.

II. THE LIBRARIAN

Ideal qualifications for the librarian are a college education, one year's training in an approved library school and one or more year's experience in library work, an attractive personality, and a knowledge of how to make the resources of the library available to every teacher and pupil in the school. (1) Administrative duties of the librarian should include directing the policy of the library; preparing the annual library

budget; supervising the work of student assistants; selecting and ordering books and periodicals; and assembling a working collection of pamphlets, clippings, and pictures to supplement the book and periodical resources of the library. (2) Technical duties include classifying, cataloging, indexing, and filling all the material of the library so that it is readily accessible; keeping a record of all material loaned; providing for the mending and binding of books and periodicals; and keeping correct records and statistics of the growth and use of the library. (3) Educational duties include assisting teachers and students in finding material on special topics; instructing students in the use of catalogs and reference works; and stimulating the interest of students in cultural and inspirational work and the forming of a taste for good reading.

In libraries of schools having 200 to 500 or more pupils, the librarian should have at least one year of special library training and should be given the same rank and salary as heads of departments. In smaller



TYPICAL LIBRARY GROUP FOR A SMALL HIGH SCHOOL

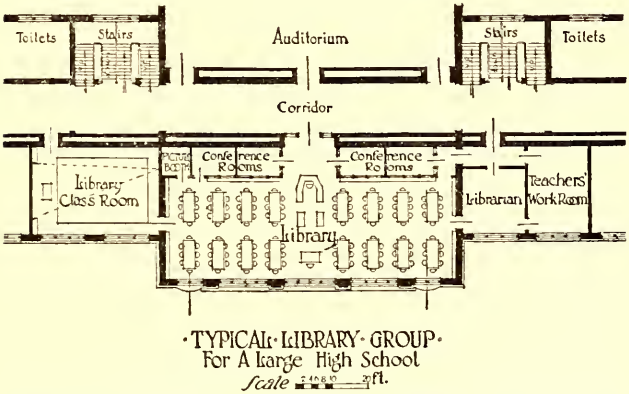
From High School Buildings and Grounds (Bulletin, 1922, No. 23 U. S. Bureau of Education.)

schools, if a teacher-librarian is employed, library training for six weeks at a summer school should be required. In this event the teacher's schedule should be divided between the library and the classwork. If student assistants are employed in addition to the librarian, in order that the library may be kept open throughout the school day, they should be trained and supervised by the librarian.

III. Scientific Selection, Classifying, and Cataloging of Books and Other Material

Books and other materials for the library should be selected by the librarian, with the approval of the principal, upon the recommendation of heads of departments and teachers, selection being made with reference to the educational aims of the school, the recreational and cultural needs of the students, and the particular interests of the local community. In making the selection the librarian should be guided by standard lists such as those issued by the United States Bureau of Education (Washington, D. C. *Bulletin* No. 41, 1917, 15c), by the various state departments of education, or in accord with suggestions offered in publications issued by the National Education Association, the American Library Association, and other publishers of handbooks on book selection and library management. The best reference books and periodicals should be supplied in abundance, while complete works of authors or books sold on subscription should largely be avoided. Books in great demand should be supplied in duplicate. All books should be marked with the school bookplate, accessioned, classified, cataloged, shelf listed, and made ready for circulation. The minimum requirements for North Carolina schools are 300

and 500 volumes. Standards recommended throughout the country are: for schools having an enrollment of 100 or less, 1000 volumes; 200 or more, 2000 volumes; between 200 and 500, 3000 volumes; between 500 and 1000, 3000 to 8000 volumes.



From High School Buildings and Grounds (Bulletin, 1922, No. 23 U. S. Bureau of Education.)

Other material, such as clippings, post cards, pictures, lantern slides, moving picture films, maps, globes, etc., which are used on special occasions by different departments of the school, should be classified and kept by the library and loaned for use in the library classroom or other classrooms. The library should also administer the loans made to the school by other libraries, museums, and loaning agencies, but it should not have charge of text books, stationery, and other school supplies.

IV. INSTRUCTION IN THE USE OF BOOKS

The most important work of the library is that of training students in the use of books and libraries. (1) A minimum of 3 recitation periods per year should

be given in each English course to graded instruction in these subjects; or, preferably, (2) a minimum of 12 lessons a year should be given, 3 in English, 3 in history, 1 in Latin, 1 in Spanish or French, and 4 in the sciences, manual training, and home economics. This instruction should be given by the librarian; it should be scheduled as a part of the curriculum, and credited as a separate subject.

The training in the use of the library should have three principal objectives: (1) Students should be taught the use of indexes and reference books as tools. Lessons based on the card catalog, indexes to books and magazines, dictionaries, encyclopedias, atlases, and other works of reference, should be carefully planned so that an exact knowledge of their use and contents can be acquired. (2) Education does not end with the high school. Consequently the training in the use of books should be related to the use of public, college, and reference libraries, and of material furnished by library commissions and university extension agencies, so that self-education may be continued throughout life. The connection between the school library and the public library should be particularly close and cordial. (3) Books also furnish recreation and amusement; they instruct; and inspire. Students should be trained in discovering these values in the books they read.

V. ANNUAL APPROPRIATION

In North Carolina no special library fund has been provided for high schools. However, the salary of the librarian should be charged to instruction or administration, and books, magazines, and supplies to equipment. The library budget should be included annually in the total school budget and the school fund should

meet the main cost of operation. The book fund should be carefully apportioned by the librarian according to the needs of each department, and it should be estimated on the basis of a minimum of 50 cents per student per year. For periodicals at least $40 per year should be estimated even for the smallest high school.

VI. STATE SUPERVISION OF SCHOOL LIBRARIES

Inasmuch as the building up of a successful high school library system involves a great deal of effort and the expenditure of a large amount of money, the whole work should be directed by a library expert. Through such an officer, connected with the state department of education or the state library commission, library standards should be established, proper lists of books and effective methods of procedure should be worked out, and the whole work of the high school library should be placed on a satisfactory basis. Where such an officer is not provided, the duties mentioned should be performed as far as possible by the state high school inspector.

MODIFICATIONS

The standards set forth in the foregoing sections will, in many instances, necessarily have to be modified to meet special conditions. The small school that cannot provide a special library room should equip a regular classroom. Likewise, if it cannot afford a trained librarian, it should provide a teacher who has had at least a summer school course in library methods. If it cannot set aside every year 50 cents per pupil for books, it should spend what it can. However, in all circumstances it must be kept in mind that

the library can be, and should be, made the real heart and center of the school, and inasmuch as the standards recommended contribute to that end, they should be applied at the earliest moment that conditions permit.

INSTRUCTION IN THE USE OF BOOKS

By MRS. RUTH H. KOOS
Librarian of the R. J. Reynolds High School,
Winston-Salem, N. C.

"Instruction is no longer carried on merely by means of textbooks, but through the comparison of authorities, the consultation of sources, and the use of maps, pictures, lantern slides and other illustrative materials." The provision of these, the cultivation of a taste for good literature and the development of recreational reading habits, have called the school library into being.

A trained librarian is essential to administer the high school library, to choose books and to teach the use of books. Such instruction in the use of books and libraries varies with each school; some give one period a year to each pupil; others give a course extending over the four years of high school. Though the time limit varies so widely, still the content of the courses seems fairly uniform, the variation being in the time spent upon each reference aid. These courses cover the care of books; arrangement of the books on the shelves, with some information about the Dewey classification; the difference and function of the index and the table of contents; the making of a bibliography; use of the various parts of a dictionary; the encyclopedia; the use of the Who's Who, Statesman's Yearbook, World's Almanac, Dictionary of Names, Hoyt's

Quotations and the Readers' Guide. Follow-up assignments given after each lesson, testing the pupils' knowledge of the actual use of the books, are as important, in the writer's opinion, as the instruction itself.

The following is a short bibliography of sources of information regarding courses of instruction in the use of libraries:

Certain: Standard Organization and Administration of Libraries in Secondary Schools. A.L.A. 78 Washington Ave., Chicago, Ill. 40c.

Connoly: How to Use a Library. 1917. Wilson. Pa. $1.00.

Fay-Eaton: Instruction in the Use of Books and Libraries. 1919. Faxon. $3.75.

Hopkins: Reference Guides that Should be Known. 1919. Willard Co. Detroit. 11 parts. Pa. 25c each.

Kroeger-Mudge: Guide to the Study and Use of Reference Books. 1923. A.L.A. $2.50.

Lowe: Books and Libraries. 1916. Faxon. Pa. 50c.

Ward: Practical Use of Books and Libraries. 1922. Faxon. $2.00.

Ward: Suggestive Outlines and Methods for Teaching the Use of the Library. 1919. Faxon. $1.50.

Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction: Lessons on the Use of the School Library. 1918. State Supt. Public Instruction. Madison, Wis. Pa. 5c.

Same: . . . Library Lessons for High Schools. Pa. 5c.

Wiswell: How to Use Reference Books. 1916. Amer. Bk. Co. Chicago. 80c.

N. Y. City Board of Education: Syllabus in the Use of Library Books for High Schools. Pa. (Also a syllabus for the grades).

Owing to the delay in construction of the new Winston-Salem High School, the writer has been literally a librarian without a library. However, across the street from the old high school building, is the city

Carnegie Public Library. Here, the city librarian very graciously arranged a corner in her already crowded rooms for the high school librarian. The high school has been running on a double shift, allowing only one study period for each pupil. Consequently the library has furnished a splendid place to study and to wait for classes. In a library where there is practically no duplication of reference material, it has not always been easy to meet the needs of thirty, forty, or sixty pupils who have swarmed in for the same material. Because the group varied each period and each day, no systematic instruction has been attempted, except in one instance. Individual instruction was substituted as the questions were presented. When present day conditions among the Eskimos were wanted, the pupil was instructed in the use of Readers' Guide; when a simple article was needed, the encyclopedia was explained; when an event in history was assigned, the index and table of contents served as a lesson; when a collector of autographs needed the address of some present day hero, then the Who's Who gave its share of information. Sometimes it was possible to attempt the instruction with a small group, when its members were searching for the same material.

A civics teacher asked the librarian if she would give a lesson on the use of the library to four divisions of her pupils when they had finished the lesson on the library in their textbook. The lesson covered one period of forty minutes, each division numbering over forty girls. The problem which confronted the librarian was whether to concentrate on one reference aid, or whether to give a hasty glimpse of the more important reference books. The latter was chosen because the questions which had previously come to the

librarian from these four groups required the use of several reference tools.

As a preface to the lesson the librarian mentioned the need for a knowledge of books and libraries and the attitude toward others in the library and toward books. A chart, with the thirteen main divisions of the Dewey decimal classification was shown. A few of the subdivisions were mentioned as the librarian pointed out the location of each class on the shelves. The function of each of the following was explained simply and briefly: the dictionary, the encyclopedia, World's Almanac, Who's Who, American Yearbook, and the Readers' Guide. On account of imperfections in the card catalog instruction was postponed upon this invaluable library tool. With forty odd girls, it was impossible to have each person handle the books during the one period, so a problem was given to each pupil to test her knowledge of these books. The solutions were pooled next day in class and served as a review. There is an appreciable difference in the attitude and knowledge of these pupils over those who had no instruction. If one lesson could accomplish so much, what might not a systematic and thorough course do?

How can the school library help the other departments? In every course there are great names of men who have contributed some great principle to physics, some great mathematical formula, some great chemical combination, some great civic reform, some great law in science. Often the story of the lives of these men is as fascinating as fiction. The teachers will be glad to enrich their courses with such assignments or suggested readings. There is so much disagreement among so-called authorities as to an event in history, the merit of a novel, the effect of a natural phenomenon, that

the pupils will be anxious to follow out these differing points of view and decide for themselves from library reading. Oral topics give an opportunity to bring into the course material which cannot be assigned to the whole class for lack of time. Magazines of special interest to each department contain current material valuable to teachers and to students. A bit of written research work is often required by teachers of history or science. The debating and literary societies are always glad of the help of the library along their lines. The geography classes gather their facts about products, industries, their projects and problems from books in the library. Many instructors require regular outside readings for their classes, and this can be housed in the library and just distribution made.

The library should be a place where the individual student can browse about on his pet hobby. For this reason the librarian should be on the lookout for these and secure books which will appeal to the students. Many attractively bound and illustrated books invite recreational reading—one of the present aims of English teaching. It is wiser not to circulate these expensive editions, but to provide cheaper bindings to take home. Pictures will often attract, and the library should begin to accumulate these and see that the teachers learn of such collections. They will enliven and enrich any study and arouse an interest which may find its outlet in the library.

If the librarian does her best to answer the questions presented to her, seeks to provide interesting books and magazines, the pupils will hardly need other means to interest them in their library.

HOW THE CARNEGIE LIBRARY CO-OPERATES WITH THE CHARLOTTE HIGH SCHOOLS

By A. M. ELLIOTT
Principal of the Central High School, Charlotte, N. C.

The importance of habits of study and independent research is being realized more and more by high school educators. The laboratory, so long thought of as the work-shop for science courses, is being utilized by teachers of English and the social sciences. The most important laboratory of a modern high school is, doubtless, a library—a work-shop for every course in the curriculum. Unfortunately, the library is probably the last item in a building program to receive attention. To meet this lack of inadequacy, of library facilities school officials have resorted to many expediencies. Undoubtedly, the first movement should be an agitation for a school library. While this is materializing a plan of coöperation between the school and the public library—if one is available—should be worked out. An outline of the plan used by the Charlotte high schools and the Carnegie Library follows:

Three years ago each pupil in the first year of high school was given a short but intensive course in the use of a library. This has been followed each year since, so that at present practically every student in the upper grades has some knowledge of library usage, a familiarity with the classification of books, and an increased ability to use the library intelligently for independent research.

The course mentioned was formulated by the librarian of the Carnegie library in conjunction with the English teachers of the high school. Mimeograph copies explaining the Dewey decimal classification of books, the use of the card index, and the arrangement

of reference works were distributed among the pupils. The English teacher based a lesson on this information, requiring a knowledge of the contents as a regular assignment. Interest in the work was aroused by class discussion and the novelty of the subject-matter.

With this preliminary information fresh in their minds the pupils were taken direct to the library. As the early morning is the freest period of the day for a public library, a class reports there rather than at school. The pupils, in charge of a teacher, are first taken on a general inspection trip by the librarian. The stacks are visited, the card-index catalog is located, and a general familiarity with the physical equipment of the entire building is acquired. After this tour the pupils are seated in the reading room and a round-table discussion of the uses of the library follows. With the preliminary drill at school, the inspection of the library, and the awakening interest in books as a background, the pupils are ready for the more technical side of the training.

The class is next divided into groups of about ten each. One group is set to work finding a list of the works in the library by a certain author. Another group finds the authors of a list of books. The third group may work in the reference rooms, studying The Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature or the arrangement of the encyclopedias. These groups are changed until all have done the same work. Slips containing the name of a book are filled out by the pupils and taken to the card catalog. Here the call numbers are copied and the pupil goes directly to the stacks and finds the book. It is surprising to find out how quickly the average pupil can locate a book once he learns

the significance of the decimal system and the arrangement of the stacks.

Following this drill in finding a given book when only the title is given, or in locating all the works of a given author, the class is introduced to the fiction shelves. Here it finds that all fiction is arranged alphabetically according to authors. This is comparatively simple and takes but little time. Several pupils want to take out books on the spot. All who are not already members of the library sign up.

The last feature of the visit is a ten minute test of a practical nature to determine the thoroughness of the work and to summarize the main facts to be remembered. This test is prepared in advance on individual sheets and consists of finding the library material on certain topics in the reference room, locating certain books on the shelves, and finding all the titles of works by a given author. These papers are graded and counted in the English marks. The formality of a test seems to make the pupils take the work more seriously and to make the most of the visit. Such is the nature of the library visit. Two main ideas have been behind the whole visit. First, to interest the pupils in a general way in good literature and the atmosphere of a literary work-shop, and, secondly, to acquaint them sufficiently with the mechanics of the library so that they may be able to make independent investigations on future topics, or to locate some book they want to read.

Should the work stop at this point we would feel that our time had been well spent. But following quickly on the heels of this training are a number of library assignments. "Striking while the iron is hot" is a most important feature of this work. The pupils

are eager to try out their newly acquired knowledge, and the time is ripe for the beginning of a large reading and investigating program. The habits of reading and research may be so inculcated in some of the pupils at this time that far-reaching results are possible. The point is to follow up this library work as quickly as possible with definite library assignments so that this new training may be put to immediate use. Library records show that the withdrawal of worth-while books by high school students since the inauguration of this definite system of coöperation has increased very largely. This, undoubtedly, is the final test of the plan—the measuring stick by which the success of our work may be determined.

It may appear that the librarian may not have time to carry out this program in addition to the regular duties. This is a real problem. Charlotte is fortunate in having a librarian of tireless energy and foresight. The library receives some returns for its work. As an advertising medium, whereby the library is brought directly before the families of the city and its usefulness clearly demonstrated, the device has proven worthwhile. Pupils who were continually asking aid in finding a book or in looking up material for a debate are now able to do this for themselves. The chief compensation, however, is the personal satisfaction of having rendered a notable service to secondary education.

REFERENCE BOOKS FOR HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARIES

By C. M. BAKER
Assistant Librarian of the University of North Carolina

The following reference books are suggested to supplement those in the List of Books for High School Libraries published by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. The books can be bought through local book dealers or from such firms as Brockmann's, Charlotte, N. C.; G. P. Putnam's Sons, 2 W. 45th St., New York; Baker Taylor Co., 354 4th Ave., New York.

Webster. Collegiate Dictionary. 3d. ed. Merriam. $5.00.

Appleton. New Practical Cyclopedia. 6v. Appleton. 1915. $30.00.

Standard Reference Work-Aiton's Encyclopedia. 5v. 1918 ed. Welles. $26.75.

Wilson. School Library Management. Wilson. $.85.

Champlin. Young Folks' Cyclopedia of Common Things. 4th. ed. 1919. Holt. $3.00.

Champlin. Young Folks' Encyclopedia of Persons and Places. 6th. ed. 1911. Holt. $3.00.

Hoyt. Cyclopedia of Practical Quotations. New ed. Funk. $7.50.

Fernald. English Synonyms, Antonyms and Prepositions. Funk. $1.90.

Brewer. Readers' Hand-book. Lippincott. $3.00.

Smith, E. F. Dictionary of Dates. Everyman. Library binding. Dutton. $1.20.

Scientific American Reference Book. Munn. $1.50.

Smith, W. Smaller Classical Dictionary. Everyman. Library binding. Dutton. $1.20.

Bliss. New Cyclopedia of Social Reform. 3d. ed. Funk. $7.50.

Allen and Cotton. Manual Training for Common Schools. Scribner. $1.40.

Dana. How to Know the Wild Flowers. Scribner. $3.00.

Nuttall. Popular Hand-book of the Birds of U. S. Little. $5.00.

Warren. Elements of Agriculture. Macmillan. $1.68.

Davidson. Agricultural Engineering. Farm science ser. Webb. $1.80.

Warren. Farm Management. Macmillan. $2.40.

Kinne. Foods and Household Management. Macmillan. $1.40.

Elson. Book of Musical Knowledge. Houghton. $5.00.

Beard. American Boy's Handy Book. Scribner. $3.00.

Withington. Book of Athletics. Lothrop. $2.00.

Painton. Commencement Manual. Dennison. $2.00.

Blackstone. New Pieces that will Take Prizes in Speaking Contests. Hinds. $2.00.

Wendell. History of Literature in America. Scribner. $2.00.

Pancoast. Introduction to English Literature. Holt. $1.92.

Ward. English Poets. 5v. Macmillan. $2.00 each.

Stevenson. Home Book of Verse. 3d. ed. Holt. $15.00.

Repplier. Book of Famous Verse. Houghton. $1.75.

Brooks. North Carolina Poems. N. C. *Education,* Raleigh. $1.00.

Trent. Southern Writers, selections—. Macmillan. $2.40.

Heath's French Dictionary. Heath. $3.00.

Saintsbury. Short History of French Literature. 6th. ed. Oxford. $3.50.

Heath's German Dictionary. Heath. $3.00.

Harper's Dictionary of Classical Literature and Antiquities. Amer. Bk. Co. $8.00.

Lawton. Intoduction to Classical Latin Literature. Scribner. $1.60.

Cram's Unrivaled Atlas of the World. Cram. $10:50.

Putnam's Handy Volume Atlas of the World. Putnam. $6.95.

Wolfson. Essentials in Ancient History. Amer. Bk. Co. $1.92.

Hazen. Europe Since 1815. Holt. $4.00.

Gardiner. Student's History of England. Longmans. $5.00.

Botsford. History of Rome. Macmillan. $2.00.

Bury. Student's History of Greece. Macmillan. $2.00.

Channing. History of the U. S. 5v. Macmillan. $4.00 each.

Beard. Contemporary American History, 1877-1913. Macmillan. $2.25.

Tappan. American Hero Stories. School ed. Houghton. $.92.

Free Government Documents

The following United States government documents will be found very useful in a library. They can be secured free from your Congressman on request.

Statistical Abstract of the United States.

Congressional Directory.

Bureau of Education *Bulletins.*

Farmers' Bulletins, and Year-book of the U. S. Department of Agriculture.

Suggestions Regarding Encyclopaedias

The New International Encyclopaedia, Dodd Meade, N. Y. 24 v., has just appeared in a new edition (second) which sells for $168. Aside from having the 1920 population figures and a few special articles, this edition is much like the earlier one. If a school has the money to buy this excellent encyclopaedia it should insist on the new edition, but if it can obtain the older edition (1914-16) second hand at a reasonable price, say not over $50, it will find it satisfactory.

The Encyclopaedia Britannica, 11th ed., University Press, N. Y., 29v., was republished in 1915 in a handy volume size, sometimes called the Photographic edition, on regular book paper, price $50. This edition has been exhausted, but a library may be able to pick up a second hand set.

The ninth edition of the Britannica (1878-89) is still useful for literary, historical, and classical references. If a set is offered as a gift it should be accepted.

SOME USEFUL BOOKS ON THE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARIES

By LOUIS R. WILSON
Librarian of the University of North Carolina

The following handbooks will prove of great assistance to the principals and teachers who are untrained in library methods but are attempting to organize and administer high school libraries. They are listed under appropriate heads in the order of their importance.

High School Library Standards

Report of the National Education Association on the Standard Organization and Administration of Libraries in Secondary Schools of Different Sizes. American Library Association, 78 East Washington St., Chicago, 1920, 40c. Indispensable for ascertaining what the best library standards are.

Handbooks and Manuals

Wilson, Martha, School Library Management. The H. W. Wilson Co., New York, 3rd ed., 1922, 85c. A handbook which admirably presents every phase of high school library work. Every library should have a copy.

Dana, J. C., A Library Primer. Library Bureau, 316 Broadway, New York, 3rd ed., 1920, $3. The standard handbook for general library work. It is more advanced and inclusive than Wilson and furnishes an excellent background for all kinds of library activity.

Library Service for Schools: A Manual for Teachers and Librarians. *Bulletin* No. 9, 1920, of the De-

partment of Education of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, Boston, 1920.

School Libraries: Planning and Equipping the School Library. Library Bureau, 316 Broadway, New York, Free. A trade handbook showing illustrations of interiors of high school libraries, with excellent suggestions concerning many phases of high school library work. Equipment and supplies are also illustrated and listed.

How to Organize a Library. Library Bureau, 316 Broadway, New York, Free. A very brief handbook prepared by a library supply house describing the most essential library records and the simplest methods of carrying on a small library.

Classification

Dewey, Melvil, Decimal Classification and Relative Index, Abridged Edition for Small Libraries and Schools. Library Bureau, 316 Broadway, New York, $3. The standard system of classification used generally throughout the United States. Indispensable.

Cataloging

Hitchler, Theresa, Cataloging for Small Libraries. American Library Association, 78 East Washington St., Chicago, $2. Clearest, simplest, and most helpful aid for the untrained cataloger.

How Shall I Catalog My Library? Library Bureau, 316 Broadway, New York, Free. A very suggestive trade booklet on classification and cataloging.

High School Library Book Lists

List of Books for High School Libraries, State Department of Education, Raleigh, Free. Every North Carolina high school should have a copy of this list.

Wilson, Martha, Books for High Schools. U. S. Bureau of Education *Bulletin* No. 41, 1917, 15c. It lists, with very helpful annotations, about 1400 titles and is a most excellent aid in book selection.

Oregon State Library, List of Books for School Libraries, Part II, Books for High Schools. Salem, Ore., price not indicated. One of the best lists prepared by the various state libraries and departments of education.

Library Supplies

Library Supplies (trade catalog of the Library Bureau, 316 Broadway, New York); Library Supplies, Catalog No. 26 (trade catalog of Gaylord Bros., Syracuse, N. Y.); and The Book of Library Supplies, Catalog No. 20-G, (trade catalog of the Democrat Printing Co., Madison, Wis.), are, as their titles indicate, illustrated catalogs of three firms which specialize in library supplies and equipment. Copies can be secured free on application and are indispensable.

The Use of Books

Ward, Gilbert O., The Practical Use of Books and Libraries. An Elementary Manual. F. W. Faxon Co., Boston, 3rd ed., 1922, $2.00. An excellent handbook for teacher-librarians who offer instruction in the use of books.

Fay, Lucy E., and Eaton, A. T., Instruction in the use of Books and Libraries; A Textbook for Normal Schools and Colleges. F. W. Faxon Co., Boston, 1919, $3.75. Longer and more advanced than Ward with especially suggestive chapters on children's literature, children's reading, illustrated books, and a most excellent list of books for high schools.

Library Periodicals

Public Libraries (Monthly except August and September), 6 North Michigan Ave., $3 a year. Contains articles on school libraries and general library subjects.

North Carolina Library Bulletin (Quarterly), The North Carolina Library Commission, Raleigh, Free. Features subjects of interest to North Carolina libraries and librarians.

Library Notes (Monthly except August and September), The North Carolina College for Women Library, Greensboro, Free. Lists and annotates the books added to the college library.

Libraries in Use

The Lincoln School Library. An article which appeared in the January 1923 number of Teachers College *Record,* Columbia University, New York City, which describes in detail the equipment and use of a highly developed school library. It is most suggestive as to the best present day library methods.

NOTES FROM THE LIBRARY FIELD

The Richard J. Reynolds Memorial High School

The new Winston-Salem High School Building is nearing completion, and the library, of which the following is a description, was opened for service on May 9. The library suite, consisting of a main reading room, a library classroom and a work room, is situated on the second floor, across the corridor from the two study halls. The rooms are in the center of the building, face south and overlook the city.

The main reading room is sixty-seven feet by thirty-one feet, and has seven large windows across one side, so that there is an abundnce of light. There are doors opening into the library classroom, the work room and into the corridor. All available wall space between windows and doors is fitted with book cases, seven feet high, supplied with adjustable shelving. A "U" shaped charging desk, placed in front of the central exit into the corridor, commands both entrance and exit. Fourteen tables, three by five feet, with six chairs each, will accomodate eighty-four pupils. The shelves between the central windows are to be used for reference books. For this reason the reference desk will be directly in front of these and will face the room.

Since magazines are an important part of the reading of the high school pupil, we have chosen the large periodical case, with exhibition compartments above for current numbers and drawers below for back copies of the magazines. An atlas case, with sloping top and adjustable shelves beneath, holds the unweildy atlases and dictionary. There is a catalog case of fifteen drawers, which can easily be enlarged by additional units. We have provided two four-drawer, legal-sized vertical files, one to be used for clippings and the other for the picture collection. Because the school library is a new department in our school, it may need advertising, so we have selected a display case to help us. It consists of two shelves, tilted slightly with a bulletin board above. This can be used for displaying new additions to the library or collections for special days, such as Lee's birthday, Thrift Week, Book Week. A section of shelving will be provided with glass doors to house our beautifully

illustrated and valuable old books. A book truck and two small stools to help in shelving books complete our equipment for the reading room.

The instruction in the use of books and libraries is essential with the present methods of teaching, and for this we shall use the adjoining library classroom. Besides the regular classroom equipment we shall have book shelves, a reflectoscope, and bulletin board space.

The work room opening from the main reading room is the private office of the librarian. Her desk is fitted with a typewriter compartment. Close by is a cabinet consisting of a two-drawer legal-sized vertical file for correspondence, catalogs and book lists, a five-drawer shelf list unit, post card and lantern slide units. Book shelves are built along one side, and on the opposite side is a built-in cupboard for supplies. There is also a seven-foot work shelf with washable top for mending and preparation of books. A book-lift opening on all floors is regulated from this room.

The writer has visited many high school libraries in such cities as Buffalo, New York City, New Rochelle, Minneapolis, Brooklyn and Washington and has seen none more adequately equipped and arranged than the Richard J. Reynolds Memorial High School library at Winston-Salem.—MRS. RUTH H. KOOS, Librarian.

Greensboro High School

The library of the Greensboro High School is at present housed in one class room, contains about 6,000 volumes, and is under the supervision of two teachers, each of whom has charge of two recitations per day.

They have as assistants three or four student helpers who are paid a small sum for their services. The library is not expertly cataloged, since only author cards and title cards have been written. Our plan is, however, to employ a librarian during the summer of 1923 and have subject cards written.

The High School has always had a few books, but only since the session of 1919-1920 has the library had a room to itself and one or more workers especially assigned to it. Our experience during these years leads us to the conclusion that a properly planned and adequately equipped library under the direction of either a trained librarian, or a good teacher with adequate library training, would probably become the very center of the high school's intellectual and cultural development.

We see now that in the layout for the new High School the library unit should consist of the following: 1. Central reading and study room containing necessary equipment for students and librarian; 2. Work room and stack room; 3. Two or more small seminar rooms for use of groups engaged in debate work, or study on a group assignment.

The library staff should be composed of at least one person of considerable library training, two teachers as assistants, and possibly half dozen student workers, —all working strictly by program.

The budget appropriation necessary to pay salaries of the library staff, add new books, replace worn out books, bind old books, periodicals, and furnish the necessary supplies, will be approximately $3,000. A larger sum, of course, can be used and advantageously, depending upon the amount to be spent each year for books. Assuming, however, an initial expense suffici-

ent to secure about 10,000 wisely selected titles, the following appropriation would adequately support a library in a high school with an enrollment of 1000-1500: Staff and assistants, $1,500; new books, $500; replacements, $250; binding and repairs, $250; periodicals, $150; supplies, $200; total, $2,850. This is an expense of approximately $3.00 per pupil in average daily attendance.

With a well planned, well equipped library under the direction and management of a well trained librarian, a course could well be offered that would merit and receive credit in terms of units. The ground on which we now stand is holy, I realize, yet a student thoroughly familiar with the workings of a modern library card catalog and its uses, has at his disposal an open sesame to all information and culture. The University and college dons will be among the first to recognize this and will hardly deny proper credit to students from large modern high schools so adequately prepared as to be able to demand it.—FREDERICK ARCHER, Superintendent of Schools, Greensboro, N. C.

Chapel Hill High School

The library of the Chapel Hill School is in a room on the first floor of the school building, near the main entrance. The book collection includes 876 volumes. About one-fourth of these are reference works such as dictionaries, encyclopaedias, and atlases. Thirty-six periodicals are regularly received; twenty-one of these are subscribed for, and the rest are donated.

The books are placed on open shelves around two sides of the room. They have been cataloged according to the Dewey system of classification. The cards

are in a cabinet where they may be readily consulted by the students.

The librarian is a teacher in the school who gives three periods a day to the library. She was prepared for the work of a librarian at the Summer School of the University of North Carolina in a course on library science taught by the members of the University library staff. A number of high school students act as assistant librarians. These were given some instruction so that they could take care of the library during their study periods. They receive, charge, and discharge books, help their fellow students find references, keep books and periodicals in order, and help in many ways to make the library of use to every person in the school who wants to use it.

The average expenditure, per pupil, for this year is $1.75. This includes money spent on salaries, cataloging, books and supplies. The per pupil expenditure on books and periodicals to date has been thirty-one cents. It will reach fifty cents before the year is out.

Instruction is given by the librarian in the use of books, and in their classification. These lessons are counted as part of the work in English. The library assists class work by helping students in the use of reference books, and in supplying reading material for parallel work. Books not in the collection are also borrowed and loaned to students. As an aid to art instruction the library exhibits each week a copy of some great painting. Books or vocational guidance are placed together and labeled. They are divided into two classes: those chiefly inspirational and generalized in character, and those dealing with certain definite lines of work. Some help is given the literary society,

by supplying readings, debate manuals, and material, and items on current events.

The library has some one on duty from 8:20 in the morning until 3:30 in the afternoon. It is open, however, whenever the building is open.—SYLVIA LATSHAW, Librarian.

New Hanover High School

The New Hanover High School Library occupies a beautiful and spacious room on the third floor, south side, of the building. The room is approximately twenty-five by seventy-five feet. There are ten large windows on one of the long sides and ample shelving space is provided on the other three sides. The shelves are of hardwood, adjustable, and in mahogany finish.

The tables are of quartered oak and the chairs of imported bentwood. There are also librarian's desk and the necessary filing cases.

There are at present about 1200 volumes in the library and these may be supplemented by loans from the city library. The books are classified, but not cataloged. The selections in history and literature are very good; but the amount of fiction is very small. The school is preparing for book day this month and hopes to receive donations that will materially increase the number of volumes in fiction.

For the present the library is in charge of the English department and a teacher is in charge throughout the school day. After the present term it is hoped there will be provided a full time, trained librarian, and there will be an appropriation for the library. The amount of this appropriation has not been finally determined.

This report is intended to show principally a recognition of the importance of an adequate library, the

provision for same in space and equipment, and a promise of future development.—W. A. GRAHAM, Superintendent of Schools.

Greensboro Public Library

The Public Library of Greensboro assists the high schools of Guilford county in various ways. In some instances collections of fifty books are sent direct to the schools and in others they are sent to library stations in the communities where the schools are located. In the case of the Bessemer High School the station is located in the school itself, the books having been selected by the teachers. Requests from the high schools for parallel readings and debate helps are complied with as freely as possible and aid is always given pupils who come to the library for reference material. Material is also furnished for orations and graduating theses at commencement, and books are loaned throughout the year which are of practical assistance to the teachers.—NELLIE M. ROWE, Librarian.

Durham High School

The Durham High School Library consists of only one main reading room, situated on the second floor of the building. The cost of installation was $1,500.

The equipment is of steel. There is shelving for about 4000 books, 9 tables seating 40 pupils, a charging desk, a vertical file, a card catalogue case, and magazine and paper racks. A glass trophy case costing $500 has been ordered.

The library now contains 1852 volumes, of which 500 have been added this year at a cost of $1200. The majority of the books added were fiction, Latin, Eng-

lish and history. Fifteen magazines and two daily papers are received through subscription.

As yet there has been only little instruction given pupils as to the use of the library. No credit is given by the school for this work. The library is opened each day from ten o'clock to 4:15. Students use books in the library and they are issued only on the week ends.—MAY WALLER, Librarian.

Durham County Schools

Since 1914 when the Board of County Commissioners made its first appropriation to the Durham Public Library the rural residents of Durham county have been allowed the privileges of the library, but owing to the lack of facilities no intensive library extension work was attempted with the county schools until the fall of 1921. The appropriation from the Board of County Commissioners to the library is now $3000.00 per year.

With the coöperation of the superintendent of county schools a plan was devised whereby the library could be of real practical help to the schools. The Board of County Education offered a certificate of reading to be awarded at the county commencement. In order to obtain one of these certificates a pupil must report intelligently on a certain number of books during the year, the number of books and titles varying with the grades and every pupil in the school being eligible for a certificate.

Durham county has six high schools, three standardized and three that are not. In these schools a certain amount of reading is required from an approved list. A high school student reading ten books is entitled

to a certificate and this may include the required reading.

The libraries in the county schools are very limited. To supplement these the Durham Public Library lends collections of from 25 to 50 books for a period of two months. At the end of the period the books may be renewed or exchanged for others. The response from the schools has been most enthusiastic. Of the thirty white schools in the county, twenty-six have collections and the reports from these are very gratifying, the circulation from January 1, 1922 to January 1, 1923 being 11,776. The appropriation by the County Board of Education for this service was $150.

The books are selected either by the teacher or the librarian. The principal is nominally the librarian, but in some instances the duty is delegated to a teacher. Each school works out its individual problems, the library supplying blanks and suggestions for keeping uniform records and reports. Books are sent to the schools by parcel post, by the school bus, or by private automobile, in heavy but inexpensive duck bags furnished by the library.

Altogether, the plan of three-fold coöperation has worked most admirably, and increasingly fine results are expected from it.—MRS. A. F. GRIGGS, Librarian, Durham Public Library.

High School Library Statistics

According to the preliminary reports for the present session filed in the office of the State High School Inspector, there are in the high school libraries of North Carolina, public and private, rural and urban, 250,992 volumes. It is impossible to say that all of these are

suitable for high school work, but they are at least available for use for high school pupils.

According to the reports of schools for 1921-22, 290 librarians were employed, and libraries were housed in separate rooms in 270 schools.

LIBRARY SERVICE TO HIGH SCHOOLS

The Library Commission

The Library Commission, Raleigh, offers to high schools aid in the selection of books for high school libraries, assistance in the purchase of furniture and equipment, lists of library supplies, suggestions for the arrangement of the books, and records of the library and outlines for instruction in the use of books and libraries. It is announced that the Library Commission will have an organizer in the field by September, who can assist in the organization of high school libraries. Her services will be available to the high schools of the State without charge.

A list of debate libraries will be sent upon application to the Library Commission. Debate libraries are loaned to schools and to debating societies, but not to individuals. Application must be made on the printed form furnished by the Commission and must be signed by the superintendent or principal of the school, or by the president and secretary of the debating society. Libraries may be kept three weeks, but must be returned promptly. A fine of twenty-five cents a week will be charged for retention of a collection beyond the date specified in notice of shipment. Fines will also be charged for all missing articles and for all injuries beyond reasonable wear and tear. No charge

is made for the loan of libraries, but borrowers pay the postage both from and to Raleigh. Stamps should not be sent with applications. The Commission will prepay the postage, and this amount should be refunded when the library is returned. The library must be placed where all taking part in the debate can have access to the material contained therein. The privilege of borrowing debate libraries will be withdrawn from schools failing to comply with this rule.

The lending service of the Commission includes also declamations, commencement material, plays, pageants, material for special day celebrations, books for high school teachers, lists of subjects for high school themes, outlines for literary societies, and a general reference collection. The lending service is entirely free except the postage which can be refunded when the books are returned.

The University Library

For a number of years the Library and the Division of Extension of the University have maintained a library extension service for the benefit of special groups such as schools having membership in the High School Debating Union and athletic contests, women's clubs, public welfare workers, teachers, parent-teacher associations, and other organizations. It has also maintained an extensive play collection for schools interested in dramatics.

In the event schools wish to avail themselves of this service in debating, essay writing, declaiming, play production, or any other subject of school interest, they should address their inquiries, through their principal or teacher-librarian, to Library Extension Service, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N. C. Borrowers are expected to pay parcel post

charges each way, to see that all material is securely wrapped and returned within two weeks from the date of its receipt, and to guarantee its safe return. On material kept over time a fine of five cents a day is charged. A bulletin explaining the various kinds of material available will be sent upon request.

COURSES IN LIBRARY METHODS

Through the Summer School for 1923 the University of North Carolina will offer, during the first six weeks of the session, June 18 to July 28, for the benefit of North Carolina schools and libraries, three courses in library science. The courses, which will be given by Dr. Louis R. Wilson, Librarian of the University, Miss Elizabeth Thompson, in charge of classification and cataloging, and other members of the library staff, are as follows:

Library Organization and Methods. Credit, 1 hour, N. or ½ course, C. Five hours a week. An elementary course in the organization and management of school and public libraries. (a) General lectures on book selection and buying; children's reading; reference work with pupils in the high school and grades; materials for declaiming, essay writing, and debating. (b) Technical lectures on the care of books; accession records; classification and book numbers; cataloging, charging systems, binding and mending books; care of periodicals and pamphlets. (c) Practice in the University Library. (d) Assigned readings.

The Use of Books. Credit, ½ course, C. or Grad. Five hours a week. A course for college students, teachers, and librarians on the use of books. Instruction is given as to the kind of information specific

reference books, dictionaries, and encyclopedias contain. Special emphasis is laid on methods of finding material for use in the preparation of themes, essays, debates, and orations, and of assisting others in finding material in school or public libraries for school use. Practice at the reference desk of the University Library and the preparation of an extensive list of reading on some subject to be assigned will be required. Lectures, assigned readings, textbook.

Classification and Cataloging. Credit, 1 hour, N. or ½ course, C. Five hours a week. A course devoted to the study of the principles of classification and cataloging and their application in the administration of school and public libraries. Lectures, assigned readings, and textbook, with required practice in the University Library.

All these courses count for college credit in the College of Arts and the School of Education, and the first is accepted by the School of Education as a professional credit. The third course, which especially emphasizes the technical subjects of classification and cataloging, is also accepted as an elective by the College of Arts and by the School of Education.

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FOLLOWING IS A LIST OF EXTENSION LEAFLETS WHICH WILL BE SENT YOU UPON APPLICATION EITHER FREE OR FOR THE PRICE LISTED:

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